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AUTHOR Miles, Guy H.; And Others

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ABSTRACT

As part of a series aimed at developing better programs for rural youths, this study tested (summer, 1972) hypotheses about community, educational, and individual factors affecting the future adjustment of rural southeastern youths, who as 8th graders in 1963-64, represented 16 rural counties, (North and South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi) remained in the county until age 16, and were eligible for a Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC) project, and not currently institutionalized, in the armed forces, or deceased. Long-term county residents gathered extensive information about each county, its school system, and staff members during the 1967-68 school year. Questionnaires mailed to 1,764 students, surveyed their early history, experiences since 1967, employment history, social adjustment, advanced education, and migration patterns; those still in school were asked about their school, general course of study, grade point average, and scope of extracurricular activities. Data were analyzed to determine whether the systematic relationships hypothesized actually existed. Some findings were: (1) the dropout problem was critical and its prevention should be the highest priority objective of any program for rural youths; and (2) 27 percent of the black males, 24 percent of the black females, 8 percent of the white females, and none of the white males were enrolled in an NYC project. Some comparisons are made with the North Central states' study. (NQ)

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FINAL REPORT

on

AN ANALYSIS OF THE NEEDS OF RURAL YOUTH IN THE SOUTHEAST

by

Guy H. Miles, Tamara L. Sparks, M. Barbara Rogoff

to

MANPOWER ADMINISTRATION
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This study in a five-state area in the Southeast is one of a series aimed at developing better programs for rural youths. Hypotheses about community, educational, and individual factors that affect the future of rural youths from the Southeast were tested by following a sample of youths from a representative cross section of rural counties. Extensive information was gathered about each county and its schools. The former students were queried about their early history and their experiences since 1967, including employment history, social adjustment, education, and migration patterns. The data obtained in the home community and those obtained from the questionnaires were then analyzed to determine whether the systematic relationships that had been hypothesized actually exist.

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The findings suggest a two-level program. The NYC-II program emphasizing skill training for general dropouts is adequate, with some redirection, for one level. Level one should be an in-school program that supplements the educational system with needed occupation-related services and counseling. Emphasis should be on dropout prevention, and the program should begin in the 8th grade. The NYC-I model is not appropriate for this level. The two levels should be coordinated to achieve a common goal.

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SUMMARY

This study of rural youths in the Southeast is one of a series of such studies aimed at developing better programs for rural youths. The results of a similar study in the North Central states as well as interviews with leaders throughout the Southeast, were used to develop hypotheses about factors -- community, educational, and individual -- that might affect the future adjustment of rural youths who grow up in the Southeast.

These hypotheses were then tested by following up a sample of youths who were in the eighth grade in the 1963-64 school year in a representative cross section of the rural counties in a 5-state area.* Extensive information was gathered about each selected county and about its school system. Questionnaires were mailed to the former students to query them about their early history and their experiences since 1967, including employment history, social adjustment, advanced education, and migration patterns.

The data obtained in the home community and those obtained from the questionnaires were then analyzed to determine whether the systematic relationships that had been hypothesized actually exist.

The overall program of research was set up on a regional basis because it was anticipated that there would be wide variation among the regions in the kinds of factors that would affect the later success of their rural youths. The wisdom of this design was pointed up dramatically by the contrast in results obtained in the Southeast and in the North Central states. These are marked differences between these two regions with respect to isolation, race, availability of jobs, poverty, outmigration, school dropout rates, and quality of education.

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*North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama and Mississippi.

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In sharp contrast with the rural parts of the North Central states, where the population is almost entirely white, half of the counties surveyed in the present study had a population that was over 40 percent black. Race plays an important part in the availability of jobs, poverty, outmigration, dropout rates and quality of education.

Black noncollege youths who grew up in the rural South have more difficulty obtaining jobs than their white peers. They are more likely to enter blue-collar jobs, less likely to enter the skilled trades and much less likely to enter white-collar and sales occupations. Far more black than white noncollege youths report that they had to take lower-paying, less-attractive jobs than they were qualified for. Black youths who drop out of school and remain in the rural community in the Southeast are in a particularly difficult position with respect to employment. Their white peers who drop out of school are more than twice as likely to be employed at their highest skill levels.

In rural areas throughout the nation the opportunity to farm is becoming more limited each year. Youths growing up in the North Central states who are forced off the farm have no choice but to migrate to the larger towns or cities in search of employment. In the Southeast, industry is beginning to move into the rural areas and rural youths are able to find local employment in manufacturing. These jobs are much more available to white youths than to black youths, however. About 70 percent of the black but only 49 percent of the white youths reported having some kind of difficulty in finding work.

Poverty among white rural youths in the Southeast and white rural youths in the North Central states is about equally prevalent and, although a real problem, is not a problem of major proportions. However, among black youths in the Southeast, over half our sample came from families with incomes of less than $3000.

Poverty among black families is especially severe in those counties where high proportions (over 15 percent) of the population are engaged in agriculture. In such counties, 72 percent of the youths in our black sample (compared to 10 percent of those in our white sample) were from families with incomes of less than $3000.

In general, when controlled for sex and race, the employment pattern of noncollege youths from families with widely different incomes did not differ. The exception was among white youths who remained in the rural community: those from low-income families were significantly less likely to be fully employed at their highest skill level than those who came from families with higher incomes.

Outmigration from the rural Southeast has attracted nationwide attention because of its interregional nature. Rural black families from the Southeast have moved in large numbers to the North and to the West. Yet, when outmigration is defined as moving away from the rural county in which one grew up, outmigration is a far greater problem to rural youths in the North Central states than it is among rural youths in the Southeast. For example, whereas in the North Central states 72 percent of high school graduates who did not go on to college left their home counties, in the Southeast only 42 percent of the black youths and 26 percent of the white youths in the same category migrated.

The rural-to-urban migration patterns among white youths in the Southeast are similar to those of white youths in the North Central states. Migration patterns among black youths are different, however. Among white youths, many more females than males leave their home communities, and many more females than males migrate to a city. Among black youths, about equal numbers of males and females leave their rural communities.

In the North Central states outmigration is most frequent among the better educated, brighter young people. Among white youths in the Southeast, the largest proportion of outmigrants is among those going on to college; among black youths, there is no more tendency for the better educated than for the less well educated to move to a city. A larger proportion of black youths than of white youths at every educational level left the South.

Almost half of the black youths said they left their home communities and moved to a city because of discriminatory hiring practices in the southern rural areas; 38 percent of the black youths but only 7 percent of the white youths said they always knew they would have to leave to obtain work. About 59 percent of blacks but only 17 percent of whites list the lack of jobs in their home rural areas as an important reason for leaving. Also, more black than white youths say they migrated because the opportunities to earn higher wages are better outside the rural areas, or there is an opportunity to enter a broader range of jobs outside the rural areas.

More black than white youths left the South, and more black than white youths moved to a city. Black youths are more likely than white youths to move to cities of over 100,000 population; white youths are more apt than black youths to move to smaller cities. Only a few white youths moved to cities outside the Southeast, whereas half the black rural-to-urban migrants moved to cities outside the South. About 84 percent of the black youths but only 48 percent of the white youths moved to cities where relatives or friends already lived.

There is a tendency for black youths from the lowest-income families to remain in the rural areas, and for those who come from families with higher incomes to move to the cities. This is not true among white youths.

In our study of rural youths in the North Central states we found that many rural-to-urban migrants were unable to adjust to the city and returned home to rural communities where jobs were scarce. In the Southeast, youthful male and female migrants adjust equally well to the city. Equal proportions of each sex returned to the rural South.

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The results of our present study show that black youths do not adjust to the city better than white youths do. However, they are less likely to return home as a result of poor adjustment. For example, of those migrants who did not make new friends easily in the city, half of the white youths but only one-tenth of the black youths moved back to their rural communities. Similar patterns were found with other measures of adjustment to the city. Black youths who move to the city from the most agricultural parts of the rural South are less likely to return home than those who come from less agricultural rural areas. This relationship does not hold for white youths.

In the North Central states a majority of rural youths grow up under conditions of isolation. Extreme isolation was shown to have a negative effect on their later employment and social adjustment. This kind of isolation is not present in the Southeast where there are more people per square mile and better transportation, and where major urban centers are within easy commuting distances of most rural areas. Even so, there was some evidence that isolation has an effect on the employment adjustment of those who grow up in the rural Southeast, although the effect is not negative. Among those who stay in their rural communities, about 80 percent of noncollege youths enter blue-collar jobs. In contrast, of those who leave the rural communities and move to a city, only 46 percent of those from communities further than 80 miles from a major urban center enter blue-collar occupations, and 84 percent who are from communities within 55 miles from an urban center enter blue-collar jobs.

In general, we found no relationship between having had a part-time job while in school and occupational adjustment later on. When we control for race and sex, those who had part-time work tend to get slightly higher entry level wages, but this difference is not large enough to be significant.

When schools are compared on a region-by-region basis, southeastern schools appear to be of much poorer quality than those in other regions of the country. The Southeast is more rural than the other major regions; therefore, a larger proportion of its schools are rural schools. Our findings suggest that Southern rural schools do not compare too unfavorably with rural schools in the North; but rural schools throughout the country tend to be smaller and less well-staffed, and to have fewer course offerings than urban schools. One of the major recommendations stemming from our previous study of the rural areas in the North Central states was that any program for rural youth must be aimed at stengthening an inadequate rural educational system, rather than depending on that system to provide the supportive services for the rural youth program. This recommendation is equally applicable to our findings concerning the schools in the Southeast.

Rural schools in the Southeast are larger than those in the North Central states. Generally, the Southern schools have a much lower per pupil expenditure than the North Central schools. However, the highest per pupil expenditures in the North Central states occur in the smallest rural schools; per pupil expenditure in the larger rural schools is about equal in the two regions.

Core curriculum offerings in schools in the two regions of the country were very similar. Schools in the North Central states offered more in the way of arts and music education; those in the Southeast were more likely to offer occupational familiarization, on-the-job training or work study programs. The broader offering of occupationally related subjects in the Southeastern schools was related in large part to the practice of hiring teachers in the vocational area who do not have degrees. Most of these are graduates of vocational and technical schools. This practice is not followed in the North Central states. Aside from these non-degree vocational teachers, the educational level of teachers in rural Southern schools and rural North Central schools are about the same, with some slight advantage in terms of numbers of teachers with Masters degrees in the Southeast.

A cluster of occupationally oriented services in these schools, centering around vocational training and counseling, appear to have a negative influence on the college attendance of black students. The larger schools tend to offer these services; the smaller schools and the segregated schools do not. A detailed analysis suggests strongly that negative counseling takes place with respect to college education for black students and, to a lesser degree, female students.

Desegregation of the schools has occurred much more rapidly in rural counties that are dependent on industry than those that are most dependent on agriculture. Segregated schools tend to lack trained counselors and do not offer a broad range of occupation-oriented services.

In the North Central states, the more agriculturally based the rural county is, the higher is the proportion of young people who go to college. In the Southeastern counties that had a high proportion of population employed in agriculture, 84 percent of the white youths and 42 percent of the black youths went on to college; the college attendance rate for rural youths from less agriculturally oriented counties is much lower. In view of our finding that 72 percent of the black youths in these counties came from families with incomes below $3000, this is a surprisingly high college attendance rate among blacks. Whereas 31 percent of our black sample said they did not go on to college because they did not have enough money, only 9 percent of our white sample made this statement.

Most school-related factors had no apparent effect on the occupational adjustment of the noncollege youths in this study. It was found that those who attend small schools are more likely to enter blue-collar occupations and not as likely to enter sales occupations as those who attend larger rural schools.

Dropping out of school is a major problem in the Southeast. Not only do many rural youths drop out at the end of 8th grade, but, of those who do enter high school, large numbers leave before graduation. The dropout problem in the rural areas of the North Central states is so small that prevention of school dropouts becomes a questionable objective for a rural youth program. In the Southeast, the dropout problem is critical and its prevention perhaps should be the highest priority objective of any program for rural youths.

The dropout rate for black students is much higher than that of white students although the white dropout rate is about 3 to 4 times greater than we encountered in the rural parts of the North Central states. Students from poorer families are more likely to drop out of school than those from families with higher incomes. Of those who indicated that their families did not have enough money to buy essential food, clothing and shelter, 62 percent of the white students and 41 percent of the black students dropped out of school. Among those school dropouts who responded to our questionnaire, over 90 percent of the black youths and only 36 percent of white youths say they would have stayed in school had financial aid been available to them.

One portion of the study dealt with the youths' participation in MDTA programs, the NYC program and in the Job Corps. We found that 27 percent of the black males, 24 percent of the black females, 8 percent of the white females, and none of the white males in our sample were enrolled in one or more of these programs. The proportion of ex-enrollees in these programs who later enter college is much higher than among other youths from families with similar incomes. Participation in these programs does not appear to be related to measures of later employment adjustment.

These findings suggest the need for a rural youth program operating on two levels. The present NYC-II program with its emphasis on skill training for those who have dropped out of school is an adequate model for one level. It should be expanded to cover more rural communities in the Southeast. The second level, an in-school program, is not adequately covered by the NYC-I model. The in-school program should supplement the rural educational system,particularly in small and in segregated schools, with occupationally related services and counseling. Emphasis should be on dropout prevention and, for this reason, the program should be broadened to cover 8th graders. The guidelines for such a program, based on the findings of the present study, are presented in a separate report.

INTRODUCTION

An Overview

This study is part of a larger program of research for the Department of Labor to determine the kinds of programs that would be of optimum benefit to rural youth. Since there are broad regional differences in the rural environment and economic base, the problems facing rural youths are likely to vary from region to region. And within a single region, the problems of the youths from different ethnic groups differ. Therefore, the program is being conducted as a series of regional studies, rather than as a single nationwide study.

In each study we are looking for factors that affect the later employability of rural white youths and, where the population mix warrants it, of rural American Indian youths, rural black youths, and rural Chicano youths. As a first step, background research is undertaken in which the opinions of experts are treated as hypotheses to be tested in a longitudinal study of the rural youths in the region or in the cultural group of interest. This approach is outlined in Figure 1 on the following page.

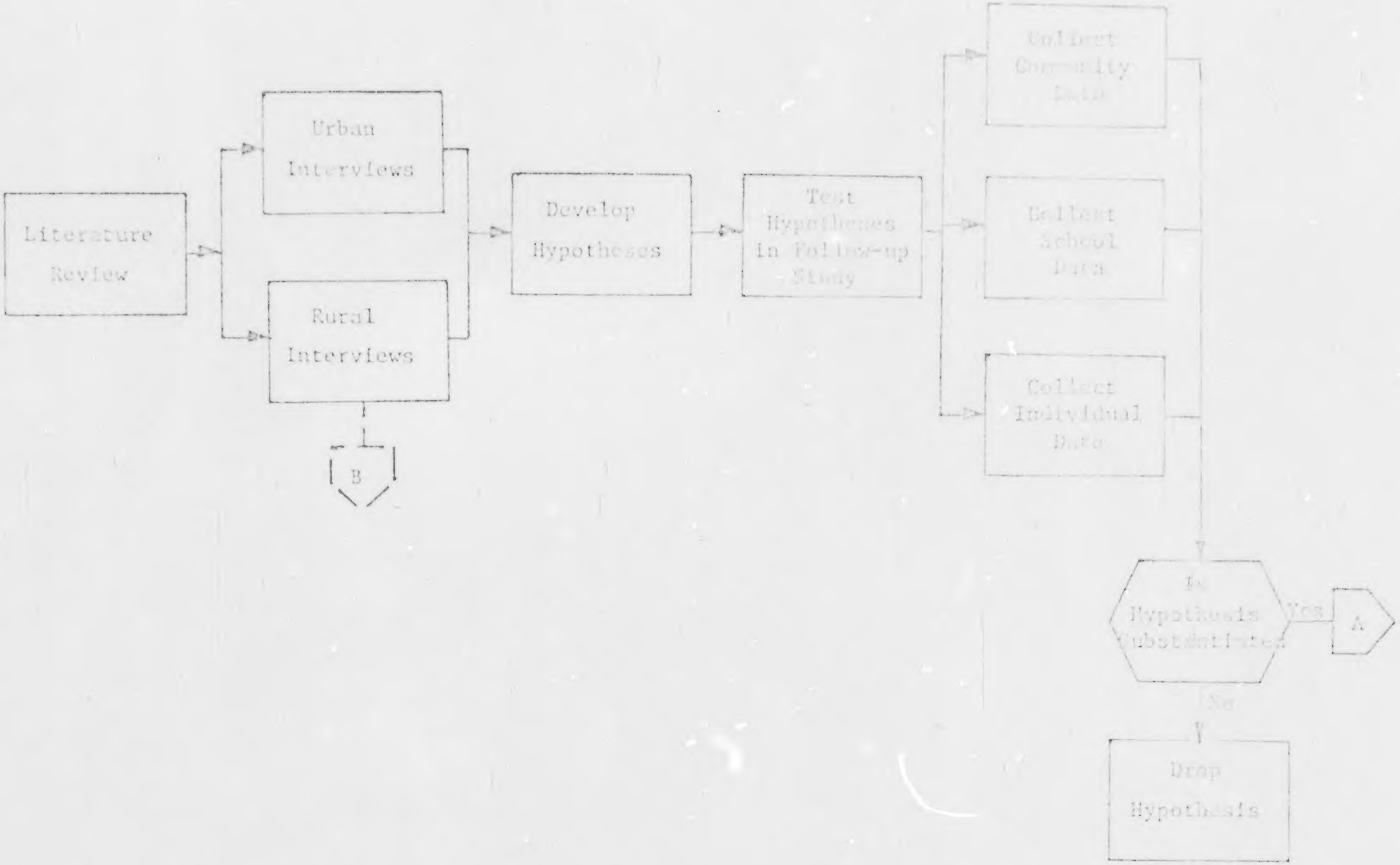

Literature Review
Urban Interviews
Rural Interviews
B
Develop Hypotheses
Test Hypotheses In Follow-up Study
Collect Community Data
Collect School Data
Collect Individual Data
Is Hypothesis Substantiated
Yes
A
No
Drop Hypothesis

Figure 1

Study Design for Background Research

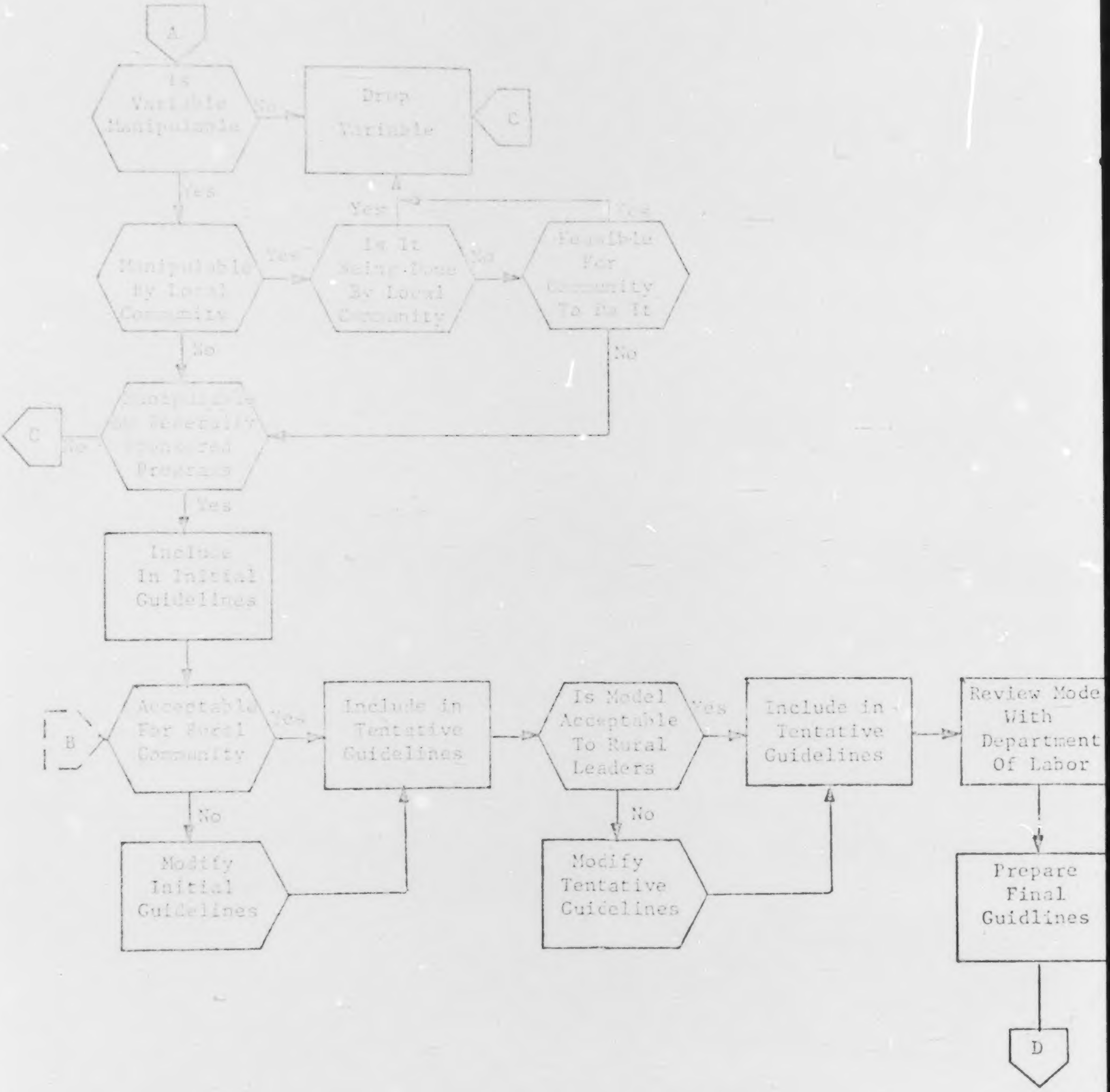
Those hypotheses that are substantiated in the longitudinal study of rural youth are analysed further in a later phase of the research to determine if this information can be of use in developing a set of guidelines for a model program. This analysis and the steps required to develop the guidelines are shown in Figure 2.

The first of these regional studies was conducted in the North Central states. Following a longitudinal study of 1100 youths, we developed program guidelines on the basis of our research findings. The resulting North Central Rural Youth Program emphasizes those factors shown by the research to have had a positive effect on the future of these rural youths and is aimed at counteracting those factors that were shown to have had a detrimental effect on their future.

The program we developed has now been implemented in a three-state experiment to evaluate its effectiveness. About 1000 rural youths in Iowa, Nebraska and Minnesota are enrolled in the program, and an equal number from matched communities have been assigned to a control group. The design of this evaluation phase is outlined in Figure 3.

The present report is concerned with the background research that we have carried out in the Southeast -- in the States of Alabama, Georgia, Mississippi, North Carolina and South Carolina. The information contained in this report will be used in developing guidelines for a rural youth program designed specifically for youths from these states.

In examining the data that we have gathered we find that there are several major differences between rural areas of the North Central


A
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No
Drop Variable
C
Yes
Manipulable By Local Community
Yes
Is It Being Done By Local Community
Yes
No
Feasible For Community To Do It
Yes
No
No
C
No
Manipulable By Federally Sponsored Programs
Yes
Include In Initial Guidelines
B
Acceptable For Rural Community
Yes
No
Modify Initial Guidelines
Include in Tentative Guidelines
Is Model Acceptable To Rural Leaders
Yes
No
Modify Tentative Guidelines
Include in Tentative Guidelines
Review Mode With Department Of Labor
Prepare Final Guidlines
D

Figure 2

Developing Program Guidelines From the Results of Background Research

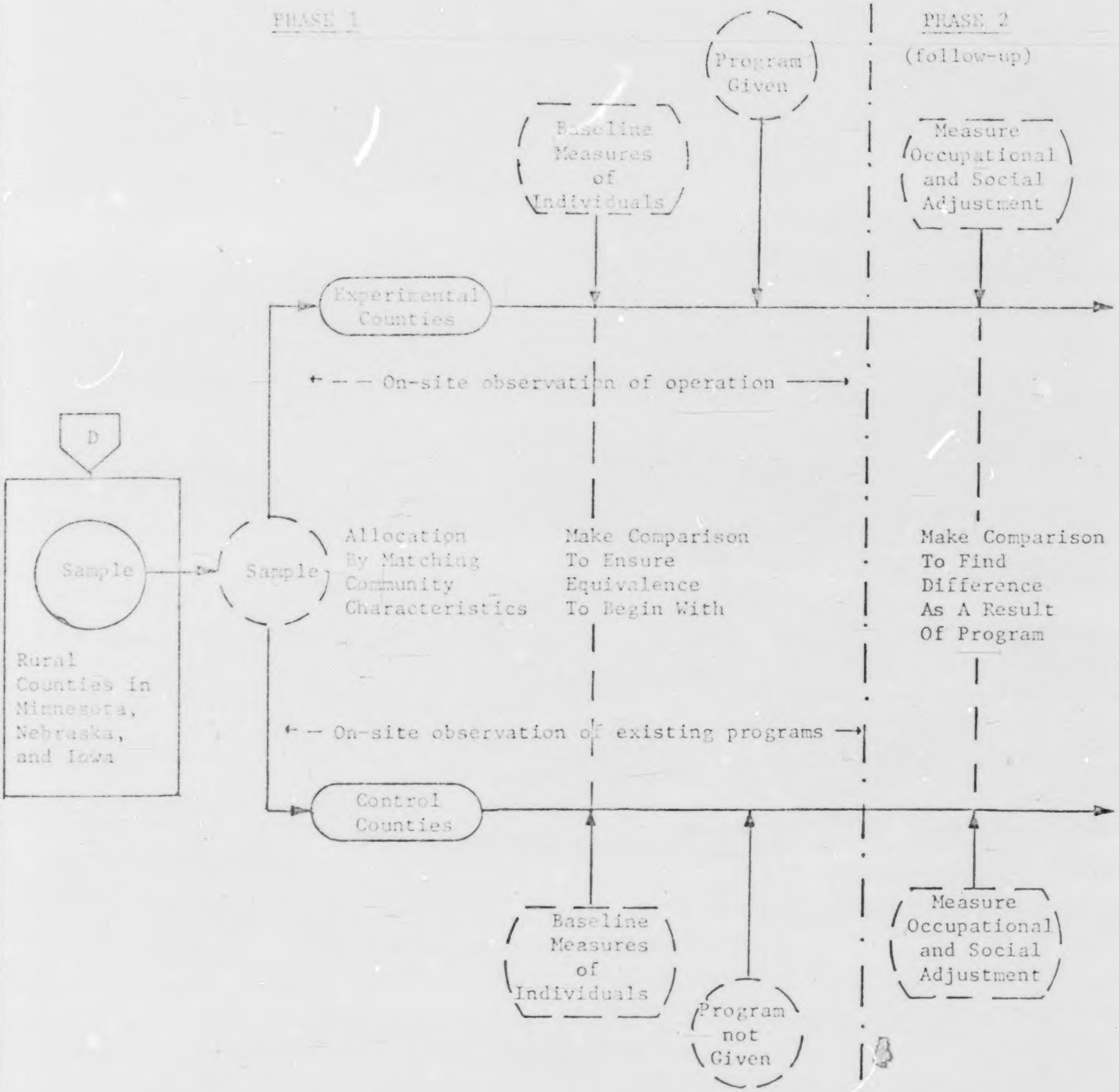
PHASE 1
PHASE 2
(follow-up)
Program Given
Baseline Measures of Individuals
Measure Occupational and Social Adjustment
D
Sample
Rural Counties in Minnesota, Nebraska, and Iowa
Sample
Experimental Counties
On-site observation of operation
Allocation By Matching Community Characteristics
Make Comparison To Ensure Equivalence To Begin With
Make Comparison To Find Difference As A Result Of Program
On-site observation of existing programs
Control Counties
Baseline Measures of Individuals
Program not Given
Measure Occupational and Social Adjustment

Figure 3

Study Design for Evaluating Program Effectiveness states and those of the Southeast that make the program that was designed for the North Central states inappropriate for youths who are growing up in the Southeast. These differences lie in the areas of isolation, race, availability of jobs, poverty, outmigration, school dropout rates, and quality of education.* To save the reader the trouble of first reading the reports of the North Central states study, we have summarized these major differences in the following paragraphs.

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*In the North Central states a cross-sectional sample of rural youth was selected by first selecting a sample of 18 rural counties. These counties were a representative cross section of all North Central rural counties on the basis of population density, median family income, and levels of outmigration. In the Southeast, 16 rural counties were selected to represent a cross section of all rural counties on the basis of population density, percentage of nonwhite population and outmigration level. In both regions, lists of students who had been in the eighth grade eight years previous to the time of the research were used as the source of the sample.

Isolation

The kind of isolation faced by rural youths growing up in the North Central states is not present in the Southeast. In the Southeast there are more people per square mile, transportation is better, and distances to major urban centers tend to be shorter than in the North Central states. For example, only 36 percent of the rural youths in the Southeast, but 60 percent of the sample in the North Central states, lived 85 miles or more from a city of 100,000 or more population. Distance of the county from a city of 10,000 or more population was also different in the two regions (See Table 1).

As is shown in Table 2, only 17 percent of the North Central states' rural counties had populations of more than 28 people per square mile; in the Southeast 62 percent had more than 28 people per square mile. Moreover, over one-third of the counties in the North Central states had less than 13 people per square mile; none of the counties in the Southeast were this sparsely settled.

As Table 3 shows, public transportation, in terms of the number of scheduled stops in the county per week, was better in the Southeast than in the North Central states. Whereas 19 percent of the rural youths in the North Central states study had grown up in counties with no public transportation at all; only 2 percent of the rural youths in the Southeast had grown up in counties with no public transportation.

Table 1

Distance of County Seat From City of ≥10,000 Population for a Representative Cross Section of All Rural Counties in Two Regions

Region	Distance		
	<23 mi.	23-31 mi.	>31 mi.
North Central	0 (0%)	6 (33%)	12 (67%)
Southeast	6 (38%)	5 (31%)	5 (31%)

Table 2

Population Density of Counties That Are a Representative Cross Section of All Rural Counties in Two Regions

Region	Population/mi.^{2}		
	<13 mi.	13-28 mi.	>28 mi.
North Central	7 (39%)	8 (44%)	3 (17%)
Southeast	0 (0%)	6 (38%)	10 (62%)

Table 3

Proportion of Rural Youths in Each of Two Regions Who Lived in Counties With Specified Levels of Public Transportation

Region	Number of Scheduled Stops/Wk.		
	None	1 - 27	28 or more
North Central	19%	12%	69%
Southeast	2%	0%	98%

Race

Of the 16 counties surveyed in the Southeast, half had a population that was over 40 percent black. This is in sharp contrast with the rural counties in the North Central states, where the black population was almost nonexistent. Race is an important component of the differences discussed below -- in the availability of jobs, poverty, outmigration, dropout rates and quality of education. The implications of race for these problems are discussed under each topic.

The Availability of Jobs

A major difference between rural areas in the North Central and Southeast regions lies in the proportions of the populations that are employed in agriculture and in manufacturing. In both regions, the opportunity to farm is becoming more limited each year. Although the number of acres being farmed have increased, the number of farms have decreased as farms are being consolidated. However, in the Southeast, perhaps because of its denser rural population, industry is beginning to move into the rural areas and rural youths are able to find local employment in manufacturing.

The North Central states with its sparser population has not attracted manufacturing companies to the rural areas as readily as the Southeast. In the North Central states over three-fourths of the counties had less than 15 percent of the population employed in manufacturing; in the Southeast none of the counties had this small a proportion of the population employed in manufacturing (see Table 4). Thus, the North Central youths who are forced off the farm have no choice but to migrate to the larger towns or cities in search of employment.

Table 4

Proportion of the Population Employed in Manufacturing in a Representative Cross Section of All Rural Counties in Two Regions

	% of County Employed in Mfg.		
Region	<15%	15-30%	>30%
North Central	14 (78%)	3 (17%)	1 (6%)
Southeast	0 (0%)	7 (44%)	9 (56%)

As people quit farming in the Southeast they can remain in their homes and commute to nearby towns to work; in the North Central states they move to larger towns to live. This is pointed up by the proportion of the sample in each region who lived in towns of less than 250 population or on a farm while they were growing up. In the North Central states only 14 percent of the sample grew up on farms or in towns of under 250 people. In the Southeast, the majority (54 percent of whites, 74 percent of blacks) grew up in towns of under 250 people or on farms. This does not, however, mean that the rural South is more agricultural than the rural North. Twelve counties in the North Central states had over 25 percent of the population employed in agriculture, whereas only one county in the Southeast had more than 25 percent of the population employed in agriculture (see Table 5).

Table 5

Proportion of the Population Employed in Agriculture in a Representative Cross Section of All Rural Counties in Two Regions

Region	% of County Employed in Ag.		
	<15%	15 - 25%	>25%
North Central	2 (11%)	4 (22%)	12 (67%)
Southeast	11 (69%)	4 (25%)	1 (6%)

When the young people who moved to the city were asked why they had left the rural areas, 46 percent of North Central youths and 43 percent of black youths from the Southeast said lack of jobs had influenced them to move. In the Southeast, however, white youths apparently have no trouble getting jobs, probably because of the manufacturing plants that are moving into the rural areas. Only 13 percent of white youths who had moved said lack of jobs was a reason for leaving their rural home counties. Thus, although there are jobs available in the rural Southeast, they are more available to white youths than to black youths (see Table 6).

Table 6

Proportion of Youths Who Said Lack of Jobs Was an Important Reason for Migrating From Their Rural Home Communities, By Region in Which They Grew Up

Region	As a Reason, Lack of Jobs Was:		
	Very Important	Fairly Important	Not Cited
North Central	36%	10%	54%
Southeast (black)	38%	5%	57%
Southeast (white)	10%	3%	87%

Poverty

The differences between the North Central and Southeastern regions with respect to poverty seem to be related to race. The white sample in the Southeast and the North Central sample, which is all white, were nearly identical in the proportion who answered that their family income was under $3000 a year, or that their families did not have enough money for essentials. Only 6 percent of the North Central states sample and 8 percent of the white Southeast sample said their family income was less than $3000, and only about 5 percent of each of these samples said that their families did not have enough money to buy the essentials -- food, clothing, and shelter. However the proportion of black youths in the Southeast who gave these replies was incredibly high; 56 percent had family incomes of less than $3000 and 38 percent said that their families lacked enough money to purchase essentials (see Tables 7 and 8).

Table 7

Proportion of Youths Whose Family Income Was Less Than $3,000 per Year, By Region in Which They Grew Up

Region	Income <$3,000
North Central	6%
Southeast (black)	56%
Southeast (white)	8%

Table 8

Proportion of Rural Youths Who Said Their Families Did Not Have Enough Money to Purchase the Essentials -- Food, Clothing and Shelter -- By Region in Which They Grew Up

Region	Did Not Have Enough Money for Essentials
North Central	4%
Southeast (black)	38%
Southeast (white)	5%

Outmigration

The patterns of population growth in the rural communities in the two regions differ considerably. Of the 18 counties studied in the North Central states, 9 had last 10 percent or more of their population between 1960 and 1970; only five counties had gained population. In the 16 counties studied in the Southeast, none had lost 10 percent or more of their population between 1960 and 1970, and 10 counties had gained more than 13.2 percent by inmigration (see Table 9).

The destination of the outmigrants was also different in the two regions. In the North Central states, the majority of the young people moved to cities of under 100,000 population. In the Southeast, far fewer rural youths moved from their home counties; those who did, tended to move to cities of over 100,000 population (see Table 10).

As shown in Table 11, outmigration in the North Central states is highly selective of the better-educated youths. This is not as true in the Southeast, although more college-bound whites than other white youths do leave.

Table 9

Net Population Change in a Representative Cross Section of Rural Counties in the Southeast and in the North Central States

Region	Number with Net Population Change (%):			
	-10.0 or more	-9.9 to -0.0	+0.0 to 13.2	>+13.2
North Central	9 (28%)	4 (22%)	3 (17%)	2 (11%)
Southeast	0 (0%)	2 (12%)	4 (25%)	10 (63%)

Table 10

Proportion of Rural Youths Who Migrated to a City from Their Rural Home Counties

Region	Migrants to City, by Size of City		
	<100,000 pop.	≥100,000 pop.	Did Not Move to City
North Central	44%	29%	27%
Southeast (black)	14%	28%	59%
Southeast (white)	22%	11%	67%

Table 11

Proportion of Rural Youths Who Migrated to a City, by Educational Level

Region	Educational Level of Migrants to Cities		
	9-11	12	>12
North Central	45%	72%	84%
Southeast (black)	39%	42%	43%
Southeast (white)	21%	26%	41%

Dropouts

There is a much higher school dropout rate in the rural Southeast than in the rural North Central states. In the Southeast there are many dropouts at the end of eighth grade; this is not the case in the North Central states. Of those who did enter high school in the Southeast, 11 percent of whites and 16 percent of blacks left school before graduation. In the North Central states, only 4 percent of those who entered high school dropped out of school before graduation (See Table 12).

Quality of Education

Size of School

Most rural high schools in the North Central states are small. In the Southeast, this is not so true. As shown in Table 13, 84 percent of the schools attended by the rural youths whom we studied in the North Central states had under 200 students in grades 10 through 12, and about half the schools had fewer than 100 students. In the Southeast only 53 percent of the schools had under 200 pupils in grades 10 through 12, and only 10 percent had fewer than 100 students.

Expenditure per Pupil

The amount of money spent per pupil is often used as one measure of the quality of education. Generally, the southern schools have a much lower per pupil expenditure than the North Central schools. As can be seen in Table 14, 50 percent of the North Central rural schools spent $500 or more per student per year for education.

Table 12

Proportion of Youths Who Entered Rural High School
and Then Dropped Out, By Region

Region	% of Dropouts
North Central	4%
Southeast (black)	16%
Southeast (white)	11%

Table 13

Proportion of Rural Schools With Various Enrollments
in Grades 10-12, By Region

	Size of High School		
Region	<100	100-199	>199
North Central	49%	35%	16%
Southeast	10%	43%	47%

only 8 percent of the rural schools in the Southeast spent $500 or more per pupil. It should be noted, however, that the highest per pupil expenditures in the North Central states occurred in the smallest schools -- per pupil expenditure may reflect the higher cost of providing education in sparsely settled regions rather than reflecting quality of education. Little difference was found in the amounts expended per pupil in those southern schools that had been segregated and those schools that had been integrated during this period.

Table 14

Proportion of Rural Schools With Various Per Pupil Expenditures, By Region

Region	Expenditure Per Pupil		
	<$400	$400-499	>$499
North Central	14 (18%)	25 (32%)	39 (50%)
Southeast	30 (48%)	27 (44%)	5 (8%)

Curriculum

The major differences in the curricula offered by rural schools in the two regions were with respect to occupational familiarization courses and on-the-job training or work-study programs. In the North Central states study we found that only 13 percent of the rural youths attended a school that had an on-the-job training or work-study program. In the Southeast 30 percent of the black sample and 35 percent of the white sample attended such schools (see Table 15).

In the North Central states only 21 percent of the youths had attended schools where an occupational familiarization course was offered. However in the Southeast 38 percent of white and 52 percent of blacks attended such schools (see Table 16).

Quality of Staff

As shown in Table 17, 18 percent of the sample in the North Central states attended schools that had no one, either trained or untrained, assigned to counseling duties. In the Southeast, 12 percent of whites and 30 percent of blacks attended such schools.

In the North Central states, as can be seen in Table 18, 5 percent of the rural schools had one or more teachers who did not have a degree. In the Southeast, 25 percent of the rural schools had one or more teachers with no degree. On the other hand, 20 percent of the North Central states schools had 40 percent or more teachers with master's degrees; this is somewhat less than the 25 percent of the Southeastern schools that had 40 percent or more of their teachers with master's degrees.

Table 15

Proportion of Rural Youths Who Attended a School That Offered On-the-Job Training or Work-Study Programs, By Region

Region	Attended School That Offered OJT/Work Study
North Central	13%
Southeast (black)	30%
Southeast (white)	38%

Table 16

Proportion of Rural Youths Who Attended a School That Offered a Formal Course in Occupational Familiarization, By Region

Region	Attended School That Offered Occupational Familiarization
North Central	21%
Southeast (black)	52%
Southeast (white)	38%

Table 17

Proportion of Rural Youths Who Attended a School That Had No Counselor, By Region

Region	Attended a School With No Counselor
North Central	18%
Southeast (black)	30%
Southeast (white)	12%

Table 18

Proportion of Rural Schools With Teachers of Various Educational Levels, By Region

Region	Proportion of Schools in Which:	
	Some Teachers Have No Degree	40% of More Have Master's or Doctor's Degrees
North Central	5%	20%
Southeast	25%	25%

OUTMIGRATION AND THE CHANGING RURAL COMMUNITY IN THE SOUTHEAST

General Population Trends

The technological developments that, in recent years, have changed agricultural methods and life styles so drastically in other regions of the country have been at work in the South also. However, the increasing mechanization of farming may have affected the population of the South more deeply than it has in any other region. In the past, many southern farmers utilized the black population to do most of the farm labor. Now, one man is able to do all the work in half the time; and, although many blacks continue to live in the rural areas, few are employed in their traditional roles as farm laborers.

Farm consolidation has decreased the number of farms. In addition, poor farming practices in past years have depleted the land and diminished its productivity. This has affected rural employment because the number of arable acres have decreased (and sometimes the number of farms).

In recent years the southern states have been moving toward an industrial and commercial economy that is organized around cities and metropolitan areas(137), although the Southeast is still the least urban in character of all of the large regions of the country.

Migrants to large southern cities most often come from small towns, rural areas and small cities in the southern region. There is no "typical migrant" moving to a "typical destination", however(111).

Rather, there is a two-way or even a multi-directional exchange of persons between regions and types of places.

Outmigration from the rural parts of the southeastern states has been extensive in recent years. The exodus is greatest from those counties that are most sparsely settled or most rural in character. A total of 751 southeastern counties (nearly all of them rural) lost population between 1950 and 1960; 621 counties (mostly those with urban centers) gained population(137). Rural areas of the South continued to lose population and urban areas to gain population between 1960 and 1970.

Those who move to the larger cities all too often have no knowledge of anything but farm work. Studies have shown that those persons enter the labor market at the lowest income levels and have great difficulty rising to better jobs and higher incomes(95). Many of them are unable to do so and therefore simply exchange one form of poverty for another.

Industry in the small towns in the South has also become more mechanized -- especially the formerly labor-intensive food and fiber processors -- and fewer people are needed to do unskilled work in these industries. Again, this technological advance has affected the employment of black workers more than that of white workers.

The Effects of Migration on the Rural Southern Community

The migration of youth (mostly black youth) from the rural areas of the Southeast to the cities in the North and the West has been one of the major population shifts of the twentieth century.

Outmigration has helped to alleviate some economic problems in the South. If these young people had remained in their home communities, the South would have been confronted with the need to provide jobs and housing for a great many additional people. On the other hand, the South's investment in the food, housing, clothing and schooling required to raise children from birth to an age when they are ready to begin productive employment is lost when these young people migrate.

The mass exodus of people from low-income rural areas has often left those who remained worse off than before. In part, this is because there are too many old people and children in these areas for the working-age population to support. In addition, the sparse population cannot support or build a strong and flexible socio-economic superstructure. Local institutions (schools, churches and governments) are dying for lack of support; and as local facilities and services decline, chances for redevelopment diminish(95).

Selective Aspects of Migration

Racial Selectivity

One-fourth of the South's population in 1940 was black; by 1960 this proportion was reduced to one-fifth. In this twenty-year period, the South's share of the nation's black population declined from about 70 to about 52 percent.

Blacks move to both northern and southern cities; in 1960, the urbanization of blacks exceeded that of whites in the United States (73 percent and 70 percent, respectively). Generally, blacks are more likely than whites to move in stages -- first from the rural areas to a nearby southern city; later to the North or West(111). Three major paths of black migration have been noted: along the Atlantic Seaboard as far north as Boston; north from Mississippi toward Chicago; and west from Louisiana and Texas to California(96).

Those rural blacks who do not migrate to the North or West tend to migrate to southern cities and metropolitan areas(111). Between 1940 and 1960, the number of blacks in the rural South declined by 67 percent, while the number living in the urban South rose by 81 percent. Of the 10 million blacks living in the South in 1960, 56 percent were living in cities(71). This group most clearly resembles the stereotype of the poorly educated, economically depressed migrant(111).

The South's white population has also been migrating; between 1950 and 1960, 1.46 million left 16 southern states (excluding Florida(96). However, natural increases and white immigration have continued to swell the white population in this region.

Whites are less likely than blacks to relocate outside of the South(34). Southern whites who do leave the region tend to move to the North Central states or to the West. But the majority of white rural migrants remain within the region, moving to such cities as Atlanta, Raleigh or Birmingham; they account for much of the growth of those cities(7).

Of the five states included in the present study, all showed increases in their white populations in the last decade. Only two showed increases in their black populations: Georgia's black population increased by 5.8 percent; North Carolina's, by less than 1 percent. The other three states showed losses of black people of between 5 and 11 percent.

To test whether the migration patterns of black and white southern rural youths are similar to those of the general rural population, the following hypotheses were developed:

- More black youths than white youths move away from the South;
- A larger proportion of black than of white youths migrate to urban settings;
- More white than black youth migrate to cities within the southern region; and
- More black than white youth migrate to cities outside the South, and to major metropolitan areas.

These hypotheses were substantiated (See Tables 19 through 23). Only 3 percent of the white youths but 18 percent of the black youths in our sample left the southeastern states within the 8 years since they entered the eighth grade. More blacks than whites moved to a city. A more detailed analysis shows, however, that black youths are more likely than white youths to move to cities of over 100,000 population but that more white than black

Table 19

Proportion of Rural Youths Who Migrated to Locations Outside the Southeast, By Race

Region	Migrated to Locations Outside the South		Totals
	Yes	No	
Black	53 (18%)	239 (82%)	292
White	8 (3%)	311 (97%)	319
Totals	61	550	611

$\chi^2 = 41.51$, df=1; $p = <.001$

Table 20

Numbers of Rural Youths Who Migrated To
Urban Settings, By Race

Race	Moved to City		Totals
	Yes	No	
Black	108 (41%)	153 (59%)	261
White	102 (33%)	203 (67%)	305
Totals	210	356	566

χ^2 = 3.80, df=1; p = not significant*

Table 21

Numbers of Rural Youths Who Moved to a City of
Over 100,000 Population, By Race

Race	Moved to City of Over 100,000 pop.		Totals
	Yes	No	
Black	72 (28%)	189 (72%)	261
White	35 (11%)	270 (89%)	305
Totals	107	459	566

χ^2 = 23.81, df = 1; p = $<$.001

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*χ^2 = 3.84 needed for p = .05 with df=1.

Table 22

Migrants to the City, By Size of City and Race

Race	Size of City			Totals
	<100,000	≥100,000	Did Not Move to City	
Black	36 (14%)	72 (28%)	153 (59%)	261
White	67 (22%)	35 (11%)	203 (67%)	305
Totals	103	107	356	566

$\chi^2 = 25.88$, df = 2; $p = < .001$

Table 23

Numbers of Rural Youths Who Migrated to Cities in the South and to Cities Outside the South, By Race

Race	Migrated to Southern City	Migrated to City Outside the South	Totals
Black	48 (47%)	54 (53%)	102
White	88 (90%)	10 (10%)	98
Totals	136	64	200

$\chi^2 = 41.95$, df = 1; $p = < .001$

youths move to smaller cities. Of those youths who moved to a city, few white youths (10 percent) moved to cities outside the Southeast, whereas over half the black rural-to-urban migrants moved to cities outside the South.

Among those youths who did not go to college, about half of the blacks who moved to southern cities and seven-eighths of those who moved to northern cities moved to major cities of over 100,000 population.

A curriculum director for a South Carolina high school thought that part of the reason for black migration to northern cities was the fact that the young peoples' parents already lived in the cities:

> "A good number of the blacks...migrate to the East Coast; they go to Boston, New York, Washington, or Philadelphia. I don't know if their reason for going is because there are no jobs [here], but I think that a good number of them are going because they live with grandparents and aunts and uncles here in this county while their parents are working on the East Coast. When they finish school in this area, they usually go live with their parents..."

It was hypothesized that:

- Black rural youths are more likely than white rural youths to move to cities where relatives and friends live.

The hypothesis was substantiated, as shown in Table 24; 84 percent of black youths but only 48 percent of white youths said they had moved to cities where relatives or friends already were living.

Table 24

Proportion of Rural-to-Urban Migrants Who Moved to Cities Where Friends or Relatives Live, by Race

Race	Moved to Cities Where Friends or Relatives Lived		Totals
	Yes	No	
Black	57 (84%)	11 (16%)	68
White	21 (48%)	23 (52%)	44
Totals	78	34	112

$\chi^2 = 16.46$, df = 1; p = <.001

Educational Selectivity

"The top 50 percent leave" is a common complaint in the rural Southeast, particularly with respect to black youth. In our earlier study of rural youth in the North Central states, we found that dropouts tended to remain in and high school graduates to migrate from the rural areas.

The migration patterns of dropouts in the Southeast are complex; moreover, not everyone agrees as to what happens to them after they drop out. A Community Action Coordinator in North Carolina stated that there was a tendency for dropouts to migrate:

> "The dropout, first of all, is one who is not achieving and is having problems with his classwork. If he doesn't get sympathy from the... teacher or someone, he'll drop out. When he drops out, if he can leave and go to a city and somebody will take him in--a relative...or someone--that is all there is for him to do."

A high school counselor in North Carolina, however, believes that this pattern of migration is changing with the introduction of industry into the rural areas:

> "I feel that in the past we have had quite a number, when they dropped out or finished high school and there was no work, migrate to the northern cities. After getting there they find no work there, also. However, I feel that most of them had to leave [here]. This is [changing] rapidly because of the expansion of industry in our local communities."

In view of these incompatible opinions, we tested the following hypotheses:

- Rural youths who migrate to urban areas tend to be better educated than those who remain in rural areas.
- Rural youths who leave the South tend to be better educated than those who remain in the South.

When these hypotheses were tested we found a complex interaction existing between migration pattern, educational level and race. A larger proportion of black youths than of white youths of every every educational level left the South. Whether or not whites left the South is not related to their level of education; among blacks, however, school dropouts and those who go on to college are much less likely to leave the South than those who complete high school without going on to college (see Table 25).

Table 25

Proportion of Black Youths Who Left the South, By Education Level

Level of Education	Left the South	Did Not Leave the South	Totals
Dropout or College	12 (10%	109 (90%)	121
High School Graduate	31 (24%)	100 (76%)	131
Totals	43	209	252

$\chi^2 = 8.40$, df = 1; $p = <.005$

As is shown in Table 26, among black youths, there is no more tendency for the better educated than for the less well-educated to move to a city. But among white youths, only those who go on to college migrate to cities at a rate approximating that of black youths.

Table 26

Proportion Who Moved to a City,
By Race and Level of Education

Race and Education		Did Not Move to City	Moved to City	Totals
Black:				
9 - 11		25 (61%)	16 (39%)	41
12		76 (58%)	54 (42%)	130
>12		52 (57%)	38 (43%)	90
	Totals	153	108	261
	$\chi^2 = 0.12$, df = 2; p = not significant			
White:				
9 - 11		27 (79%)	7 (21%)	34
12		82 (74%)	29 (26%)	111
>12		94 (59%)	66 (41%)	160
	Totals	203	102	305
	$\chi^2 = 9.57$, df = 2; p = <.01			

Selection By Sex

Little information is available in the literature concerning migrational differences between males and females. In a study done in rural areas of North Carolina, Baugman and Dahlstrom(3) found that females (especially black females) were highly critical of the rural environment; many indicated that they did not want to raise their families there. Beale and Bogue(4) found that more rural females than rural males indicated a preference for living in cities; Beale, Banks and Bowles(7) stated that rural females under 25 and over 35 had higher rates of migration than males. Thus it was thought that more rural girls than boys would leave their home communities and migrate to major urban centers.

We found in this study that male and female youths leave the South in approximately equal numbers. This is true for both blacks and whites.

Among black youths, about equal numbers and male and females move from their rural communities to a city, or from their rural community to another rural community.

Among white youths, however, the pattern is different. Many more females than males (64 percent and 43 percent) leave their home communities within three years of the time they completed (or should have completed) high school and many more females than males migrate to a city (50 percent and 28 percent) during the same time. (See Tables 27 and 28.)

Table 27

Proportion of White Youths Who Moved Away From Their Home Community, By Sex

Race & Sex	Migrated		Totals
	Yes	No	
White male	46 (43%)	62 (57%)	108
White female	134 (64%)	76 (36%)	210
Totals	170	138	318

$\chi^2 = 13.07$, df = 1; p = <.001

Table 28

Proportion of White Youths Who Moved to a City, By Sex

Race and Sex	Migrated to a City		Totals
	Yes	No	
White Male	29 (28%)	74 (72%)	103
White Female	100 (50%)	102 (50%)	202
Totals	129	176	305

$\chi^2 = 12.74$, df = 1; p = <.001

Economic Factors Affecting the Migration of Rural Youth

Employment Opportunities

The trend in the Southeast has been toward fewer farm owners, decreasing amounts of land in production, more farm mechanization, and decreasing need for workers to do farm labor. Few white, and even fewer black, youth are able to become farm operators -- there are not enough farms to take over and the costs of buying and running a farm (as well as the machinery needed) that is large enough to be profit-making are prohibitive.

Since most small towns in rural areas are economically dependent on agriculture -- to the extent that the farmers rely on them for services -- the decrease in the number of farmers has affected these towns adversely. There are fewer service jobs available in the small town because there are fewer customers.

Because of the lack of jobs in rural towns as well as on the farms, it was hypothesized that:

- There is no difference between the outmigration rates of farm and nonfarm youths.

This hypothesis was substantiated among white youths, both male and female, college and noncollege. Among black youths who do not attend college, many more farm youths than nonfarm youths leave their home counties and more farm youths move to a city. (See Tables 29 and 30 below.)

Table 29

Proportions of Noncollege Black Rural Youths Who Left Their Home Counties, by Farm-Nonfarm Residence

Residence	Migrated	Did Not Migrate	Totals
Farm	69 (74%)	24 (26%)	93
Nonfarm	32 (45%)	39 (55%)	71
Totals	101	63	164

$\chi^2 = 14.43$, df = 1; $p = <.001$

Table 30

Proportion of Noncollege Black Rural Youths Who Migrated to a City, by Farm-Nonfarm Residence

Residence	Moved to a City	Did Not Move to a City	Totals
Farm	54 (58%)	39 (42%)	93
Nonfarm	29 (41%)	42 (59%)	71
Totals	83	81	164

$\chi^2 = 4.78$, df = 1; $p = <.05$

Proportion Employed in Manufacturing

Rural towns in the Southeast are somewhat more fortunate than rural towns in other areas of the country because industry has been moving into them. However, this movement has not been extensive enough as yet to provide full employment for local residents. Some southern counties are less fortunate in attracting new industry than others. As a high school guidance counselor in South Carolina stated:

> "In this county we have a population of about 8000 people, and only two plants in the whole county to serve this community. These plants hire somewhere around 200 to 300 people. But we're talking about the availability of only around 600 jobs in the county, and you have something like 3500 people who will be looking for work. They'll have to go out of the county to other counties where there are more plants that are hiring people."

We might infer from the comment of a curriculum director from Georgia that much of the migration in the South is intercounty in nature:

> "The high school graduates -- if they only finish high school -- will stay near here. Not too many of them actually work here, but they may live here and commute."

It might be expected, therefore that:

- The outmigration rates of noncollege rural youths are higher in those counties that have a low proportion of the population employed in manufacturing.

When the relationship between the availability of jobs in manufacturing and the migration patterns of noncollege rural youths was examined, we did find a significant relationship, but not the expected one. As shown in Table 31 below, outmigration is highest from those rural counties in which there is neither a very low or a very high proportion employed in manufacturing.

Table 31

Relationship of Migration and Proportion of the County Population Employed in Manufacturing

% in Mfg. in County	Did Not Migrate	Mig. to Rural Area	Migrated to Urban Setting	Totals
White:				
<27.0	19 (53%)	4 (11%)	13 (36%)	36
27.0-32.9	20 (40%)	11 (22%)	19 (38%)	50
$\geq$33.0	29 (53%)	8 (14%)	18 (33%)	55
Totals	68	23	50	141
$\chi^2 = 2.99$, df = 4; p = not significant				
Black:				
<27.0	32 (52%)	4 (7%)	25 (41%)	61
27.0-32.9	9 (15%)	9 (15%)	42 (70%)	60
$\geq$33.0	27 (54%)	5 (10%)	18 (36%)	50
Totals	68	18	85	171
$\chi^2 = 24.13$, df = 4; $p = <.001$				

Discrimination in Hiring

Charles Silberman(101) wrote in 1964 that, because of discriminatory practices in hiring, whites were pre-empting the jobs opening up in southern industries. He reported that not only were black people barred from jobs in the new textile mills and other industries springing up in the region, but they began to find their "traditional" occupations (such as barber, carpenter, waiter, mason, painter, and sawmill operator) being taken over by the "desperate" whites.

There is a pattern of hiring in many southeastern rural communities that often seems to successfully exclude certain types of rural youths from obtaining employment. Black youths, in particular, are often the last to be hired, especially for the better jobs.

The Coordinator of a tri-county Community Action Program in North Carolina said, with regard to black migrants:

> "In their minds they feel like there is a better place, with more opportunities and less racial prejudice. ... I can't fault them for leaving, because there is nothing really for them to do here."

An NYC Director in a North Carolina county said:

> "Migration of kids, especially the blacks, is very fast. As soon as they get out of high school the ones that don't go on to college are looking for a way out of here. The reason is that this county offers them nothing -- nothing in the way of employment; nothing in the way of security. They are nothing but a burden to their family if they stay here. In order to elevate themselves above the poverty level it comes to a point where most of them must leave here."

Actual availability or lack of availability of jobs in the rural area may not be as important in stimulating migration as the contrast between rural and urban areas in their job availability. This presumes, of course, that the youths are familiar with job conditions in other localities. Many rural residents indicated that they believed that occupational familiarization courses encouraged young people to leave the rural areas. Our findings indicate that this may be the case for black youth but not for whites.

As can be seen in Table 32, 64 percent of those black youths who had taken an occupational familiarization course left their home town; only 44 percent of those who had not taken such a course left. Among white youths these proportions are nearly equal (about 47 percent).

A chief court counselor in a North Carolina county said:

> "Even though blacks are able to get an education, it is hard for them to get a job and an equal opportunity. Blacks have always had to battle for jobs, and nothing is ever handed...to them. It doesn't make any difference how qualified the individual is."

We therefore expected to find that:

- Black youths are more likely than white youths to report having had a hard time finding work in the past few years.

This hypothesis was substantiated by the data; as shown in Table 33, 70 percent of the black, but only 49 percent of the white, youths reported having some kind of difficulty in finding work. Of the reasons given by these young adults for their difficulties, most are not related to race; whites and blacks are equally likely to give them as reasons. The most frequently given reasons are: no experience (29% of white, 27% of blacks), no vocational training (25% of whites, 28% of blacks), no high school diploma (9% of whites, 16% of blacks), and discrimination (0% of whites, 25% of blacks).

Table 32

Proportion of Noncollege Rural High School Graduates Who Took an Occupational Familiarization Course and Who Migrated from the Rural Area, By Race

School Offered Formal Occupational Familiarization Course and Race	Migration Status		Totals
	Migrated	Stayed	
Black:			
Yes	50 (64%)	28 (36%)	78
No	27 (44%)	34 (56%)	61
Totals	77	62	139
$\chi^2 = 5.45$, df = 1; p = <.02			
White:			
Yes	25 (48%)	27 (52%)	52
No	24 (47%)	27 (53%)	51
Totals	49	54	103
$\chi^2 = 0.01$, df = 1; p = not significant			

Table 33

Proportion Who Said They had a Hard Time Finding Work, by Race

Race	Had a Hard Time Finding Work		Totals
	Yes	No	
White	77 (49%)	80 (51%)	157
Black	131 (70%)	57 (30%)	188
Totals	208	137	345

$\chi^2 = 15.22$, df = 1; $p = <.001$

Our preliminary interviews suggested that lack of employment might be more influential in determining migration patterns among blacks than among whites. A rural South Carolina resident expressed a commonly held point of view when he said:

> "The white kids don't migrate like the black kids do. Most of the time they can find jobs around here because of their educational background. They can go to work in the mills and in the textile plants because they can pass those tests."

On the basis of our preliminary interviews throughout the Southeast, we anticipated that of the reasons given for migration, more blacks than whites would report that they migrated because:

- There is a lack of jobs in rural areas;
- The opportunities to earn higher wages are better outside the rural areas;

- There is an opportunity to enter a broader range of jobs outside the rural areas; or
- They always knew they would have to leave the rural area to obtain work.

Each of these hypotheses was substantiated, as is shown in Table 34. Much higher proportions of black than of white youths give these as important reasons for leaving their home communities and moving to cities. About 59 percent of blacks but only 17 percent of whites list the lack of jobs in the rural areas as a "very important" reason. Higher wages in the city is given by 57 percent of blacks and 22 percent of whites; a broader range of jobs in the city, by 49 percent of blacks and 20 percent of whites; and "always knew I would have to leave to obtain work", by 38 percent of blacks but only 7 percent of whites.

To test whether there was indeed a difference between migrants and nonmigrants in the range of jobs obtained, the entry jobs of all noncollege youths were examined. It was found that almost no one, either migrant or nonmigrant, entered an unfamiliar job. Nonmigrants are more likely than migrants (79% vs. 68%) to enter blue-collar occupations; however, this difference is significant only for black youths (See Table 35). Migrants are more likely than nonmigrants (10% vs. 6%) to enter sales occupations; but this difference is not significant.

Nonmigrants are also more likely than migrants (36% vs. 23%) to enter a skilled trade -- $\chi^2 = 6.29$, df = 1; p = <.02. This difference is significant only for females when analyzed by sex; and, when analyzed by race and sex, it is significant only for black females. (See Tables 36 and 37).

Table 34

Proportions of Black and White Noncollege Youths Who Migrated to Cities, Who Gave Different Job-Related Reasons for Having Migrated

"Very Important" Reasons for Leaving	Race		Totals
	Black	White	
Lack of jobs in rural area:			
Yes	37 (59%)	7 (17%)	44
No	26 (41%)	34 (83%)	60
Totals	63	41	104
$\chi^2 = 17.66$, df = 1; $p = <.001$			
Higher wages in the city:			
Yes	36 (57%)	9 (22%)	45
No	27 (43%)	32 (78%)	59
Totals	63	41	104
$\chi^2 = 12.53$, df = 1; $p = <.001$			
Broader range of jobs in the city:			
Yes	31 (49%)	8 (20%)	39
No	32 (51%)	33 (80%)	65
Totals	63	41	104
$\chi^2 = 9.34$, df = 1; $p = <.005$			
Always knew would have to leave to obtain work:			
Yes	24 (38%)	3 (7%)	27
No	39 (62%)	38 (93%)	77
Totals	63	41	104
$\chi^2 = 12.24$, df = 1; $p = <.001$			

Table 35

Relationship of Migration and Obtaining a Blue-Collar Entry Job, by Race

Race	Blue-Collar Job		Totals
	Yes	No	
White:			
Migrant	30 (56%)	24 (44%)	54
Nonmigrant	56 (67%)	27 (33%)	83
Totals	86	51	137
$\chi^2 = 1.99$, df = 1; p = not significant			
Black:			
Migrant	60 (77%)	18 (23%)	78
Nonmigrant	68 (92%)	6 (8%)	74
Totals	128	24	152
$\chi^2 = 6.40$, df = 1; $p = < .02$			

Table 36

Relationship of Migration and Obtaining a Skilled Trade Entry Job, for Females

Migration Status of Females	Entry Job in Skilled Trades		Totals
	Yes	No	
Migrant	14 (15%)	81 (85%)	95
Nonmigrant	33 (31%)	73 (69%)	106
Totals	47	154	201

$\chi^2 = 7.52$, df = 1; $p = <.01$

Table 37

Proportion of Female Migrants Who Entered a Skilled Trade, by Race

Migration Status and Race of Female	Entry Job in Skilled Trades		Totals
	Yes	No	
White:			
Migrant	6 (14%)	37 (86%)	43
Nonmigrant	15 (28%)	39 (72%)	54
Totals	21	76	97

$\chi^2 = 2.69$, df = 1; p = not significant

Black:			
Migrant	8 (15%)	44 (85%)	52
Nonmigrant	18 (35%)	34 (65%)	52
Totals	26	78	104

$\chi^2 = 5.13$, df = 1; $p = <.025$

Because of all these hypothesized relationships, we also hypothesized that:

- More black than white rural-to-urban migrant youth will say that they moved because hiring practices in southern rural areas are discriminatory.

Table 38 shows that this hypothesis was substantiated.

Table 38

Proportions of Noncollege Black and of White Rural-to-Urban Migrant Youth Who Give Discrimination in Hiring as a Reason for Moving to the City

Race	Discrimination in Hiring		Totals
	Yes	No	
Black	47 (47%)	52 (53%)	99
White	10 (11%)	79 (89%)	89
Totals	57	131	188

$\chi^2 = 29.13$, df = 1; $p = <.001$

It is possible that black youths anticipate discrimination problems when seeking work in the rural South. Kuvelsky and Ohlendorf(68), in a study of occupational expectations of black youths, found that much "anticipatory deflection" occurred -- i.e., black youths expected lower occupational success than their chances warranted.

Each youth in our sample was asked if he had expected to have trouble finding a job in his home town after he left school. Although there is no relationship between answers to this question and migration of the noncollege youths from their home community, there is a significant relationship with race for both college and noncollege youths. (See Table 39.) Evidently, a large number of black youth who grow up in the South expect to have trouble finding jobs. This is also evident from Table 40. Black youths are more than twice as likely as white youths to say that whites have a better chance to get jobs than blacks. White youths who go on to college are more likely to agree with this viewpoint than white youths who do not go to college. (See Table 41.)

Table 39

Proportion who Expected to Have Trouble Finding a Job in Their Home Town, by Race

	Expected Trouble Finding a Job			
Race	Yes	No	No answer	Totals
Black	142 (51%)	98 (35%)	38 (14%)	278
White	80 (25%)	190 (59%)	54 (17%)	324
Totals	222	288	92	602

$\chi^2 = 46.24$, df = 2; $p = <.001$

Table 40

Proportion of Black and of White Youths Who Say That Black and White Persons Have an Equal Chance to Get Jobs

Race	Equal Chance	Blacks Have Better Chance	Whites Have Better Chance	Totals
White	196 (63%)	22 (7%)	92 (30%)	310
Black	63 (24%)	0 (0%)	205 (76%)	268
Totals	259	22	297	578

$\chi^2 = 130.93$, df = 2; p = <.001

Table 41

Proportion of White College and White Noncollege Youths Who Say That Black and White Persons Have an Equal Chance to Get Jobs

Attended College	Equal Chance	Blacks Have Better Chance	Whites Have Better Chance	Totals
Yes	84 (53%)	13 (8%)	63 (39%)	160
No	112 (75%)	9 (6%)	29 (19%)	150
Totals	196	22	92	310

$\chi^2 = 16.99$, df = 2; p = <.001

Income Level

According to the 1970 population census, the median family incomes of both white and black families in the South were considerably below those of families in the other three major regions of the country. The southeastern states also have the lowest ratio of black to white median family incomes; the median income figure for southern whites was nearly twice that for southern blacks -- see Table 42 below.

Table 42

Median Family Income by Region of the U.S.

1969

Region	Whites	Blacks
Northeast	$10,721	$ 7,327
North Central	10,298	7,764
South	8,721	4,900
West	10,374	7,379

In the North Central states study it was found that, within a rural community, the youths from low-income families tended to stay while those from the more affluent families tended to migrate; this was especially true for females. This is the opposite of what might be expected to occur on the basis of median family income of the counties. When the county data were examined it was found that the tendency was for young people to leave the low-income counties and to remain in the high-income counties. We, therefore, tested the following hypothesis among rural youths in the South:

- Among rural youths who do not attend college, the tendency to migrate to urban centers is not related to family income.

This hypothesis was substantiated for whites but not for blacks (see Table 43). Among black youths who do not attend college, those whose family's income was $3,000 or more are more apt to migrate to cities than those from families with lower incomes.

Table 43

Relationship of Family Income Level and Migration to a City, by Race

Family Income and Race	Migrated to a City		Totals
	Yes	No	
White:			
<$3,000	7 (41%)	10 (59%)	17
≥$3,000	45 (40%)	67 (60%)	112
Totals	52	77	129
$\chi^2 = 0.01$, df = 1; p = not significant			
Black:			
<$3,000	42 (41%)	60 (59%)	102
≥$3,000	38 (60%)	25 (40%)	63
Totals	80	85	165
$\chi^2 = 5.71$, df =1; p = <.02			

THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IN THE SOUTHEAST

Background

The southern educational system has developed largely in this century(56). Delayed by the Civil War and then by reconstruction, the South during the last half of the 19th century lacked funds to provide more than a primitive system of education. The greatest developments in southern education have occurred since 1940.

Segregated education has been disappearing since 1954, when the Supreme Court ruled that "separate but equal" facilities were inherently unequal(107). However, the rate of integration has been slowed by the "freedom of choice" plan and by the development of many private white academies.

The Southeast is more rural than the other major regions of the United States; therefore, a larger proportion of its schools are rural schools. Compared with urban schools, rural schools throughout the country tend to be smaller, less well-staffed and have fewer course offerings. Despite the tendency for writers to criticize southern education, our findings suggest that southern rural schools do not compare too unfavorably with rural schools in the North.*

School Size

In the present study, 16 rural counties were selected (by a stratified sampling technique) that were a representative cross section of all the rural counties in the Southeast. These 16 counties were served by 75 high schools, each of which was studied in detail by our staff.

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*One of the major recommendations stemming from our previous study of the rural areas in the North Central states was that any program for rural youth must be aimed at strengthening an inadequate rural educational system, rather than depending on that system to provide the supportive services for the rural youth program.

In our previous study of the North Central states, we selected 18 counties so as to have a representative cross section of all the rural counties in the North Central states. These 18 North Central counties were served by 80 high schools. The North Central rural schools tended to be much smaller than the Southeastern rural schools, as is shown in Table 44. (The youths in this study were seniors in high school in the 1967-68 school year, if they had not dropped out of school. All data on schools that are shown in the following tables are for that school year.)

Table 44

Number of Schools in Each of Four Size Categories Serving 16 Representative Rural Counties in the Southeast and 18 Representative Rural Counties in the North Central States

Region	Number of Pupils, Grades 10-12								Totals
	<60		60-99		100-199		>199		
Southeast	2	(3%)	5	(7%)	32	(44%)	34	(46%)	73*
North Central	11	(14%)	28	(35%)	28	(35%)	13	(16%)	80
Totals	13		33		59		47		152

$\chi^2 = 31.46$, df = 3; $p = <.001$

In the North Central states, the smallest schools were usually found in areas that were highly dependent on agriculture and sparsely settled. This is also true in the South for schools having less than 100 pupils in grades 10-12, as is shown in Table 45.

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[*] Accurate data were not available on two segregated schools that had closed since the youths in our sample were in high school.

Table 45

Relationship of Agricultural Dependency in the County to Size of Schools

Proportion of County Population Employed in Agriculture	Number of Schools with Enrollment of:		
	<100	100 - 199	200 or more
<15%	7 (13%)	24 (43%)	25 (44%)
15% or more	0 (0%)	8 (47%)	9 (53%)

$\chi^2 = 2.37$, df = 2; p = not significant

In 1967-68, a disproportionate number of segregated schools existed in those counties most dependent on agriculture, as shown in Table 46. Yet, as Table 47 shows, the small schools were not overrepresented among segregated schools.

Table 46

Relationship of Agricultural Dependency in the County to Segregation in the Schools

Proportion of County Population Employed in Agriculture	Number of Schools That Were:		
	Segregated	Nominally Integrated	Fully Integrated
<15%	28 (49%)	17 (30%)	12 (21%)
15% or more	15 (83%)	1 (6%)	2 (11%)

χ^2 = 6.[illegible], df = 2; p = <.05

Table 47

Relationship of Size of School to Segregation in the Schools

School Enrollment Grades 10-12	Number of Schools That Were:	
	Segregated	Nominally or Fully Integrated
<100	4 (57%)	3 (43%)
100-199	15 (47%)	17 (53%)
200 or more	22 (65%)	12 (35%)

$\chi^2 = 2.13$, df = 2; p = not significant

Per Pupil Expenditures

Small rural schools cannot economize in their operations to their advantage. Rural communities with small populations have a limited tax base. In the North Central states we found that it usually costs more per pupil for education in the smaller schools, where funds are usually more limited than in larger schools. Lack of money means that some things cannot be afforded; sometimes only one aspect of a problem can be solved, while other aspects must be slighted. Small schools tend to use available funds for improvement of physical facilities, consolidation of school districts, improvement of school administration and the like. The money is seldom used to change the curriculum, the instruction offered, or to add special and supportive services and programs.

In the present study, however, we found that small schools in the Southeast do not tend to spend more money per pupil than larger schools do. Among schools with under 200 students in grades 10-12, the expenditure per pupil[*] was much higher in the North Central states than in the Southeast. Among the larger rural schools there was not a significant difference between the two regions in their expenditures per pupil (see Table 48).

Table 48

Expenditure Per Pupil, By Size of High School (Grades 10-12) and Region

Region	Expenditures Per Pupil			Totals
	<$400	$400-499	>$499	
Schools with less than 200 students:				
Southeast	17 (53%)	13 (41%)	2 (6%)	32
North Central	8 (12%)	21 (32%)	36 (55%)	65

$\chi^2 = 10.64$, df = 2; p = <.005

Region	<$400	$400-499	>$499	Totals
Schools with 200 or more students:				
Southeast	12 (41%)	14 (48%)	3 (10%)	29
North Central	6 (46%)	4 (31%)	3 (23%)	13

$\chi^2 = 1.71$, df = 2; p = not significant

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[*] Although we had little difficulty getting information on expenditure per pupil for schools in the North Central states, 13 of the 75 schools in the Southeast refused to divulge these data. These schools were all in counties with a high proportion of the population employed in agriculture. There was no other factor significantly related to refusal to divulge this information. In most cases a single school in a county would refuse; other schools in the same county released this information for their expenditures.

Expenditure per pupil was not related to school segregation; nor to the county's dependence on agriculture. Most important, perhaps, is an almost consistent inverse relationship between expenditures per pupil and provision of employment-related services (see Table 49.)

Table 49

Relationship Between Expenditure Per Pupil and Provision of Employment-Related Services to the Students

Service	Proportion of Schools Offering Service, by Expenditure Per Pupil	
	<$400	$400 or more
OJT/Work-study	23%	16%
Occupational familiarization course	33%	31%
"Career Night" or "Vocation Day"	80%	63%
Field Trips	70%	56%
Job Placement Service	27%	16%
Trained Counselor	26%	35%

As in the North Central states, expenditure per pupil is not a very useful index of quality of education in the rural schools in the Southeast.

High School Curriculum

Whitlock(142) noted in 1968 that, although the great majority of southern high school students were studying what was essentially a college preparatory curriculum, less than 20 percent actually graduated from college. He concluded that the other 80+ percent needed a curriculum that is more appropriate to modern industrial needs. Godwin(52) agreed, saying that the high school curriculum needed some sort of balance between vocational, technical, professional and academic programs. These same statements have been made about rural high schools in the North Central states.

Prior to integration, it was often true in the Southeast that more vocational courses were offered in white than in black schools. A study of teenage unemployment in several rural North Carolina counties(100) showed that a much broader range of vocational courses was offered in the predominantly white and desegregated schools than in the black schools.

As in the North Central states study, the results of the data analysis indicate that the range of courses offered in the rural schools appears to be not as broad as that offered in the urban schools. The course offerings in various sizes of rural schools in our Southeastern study are compared in Table 50. For purposes of comparison, similar data are given for the 80 schools that we studied in the North Central states in Table 51.

In general, rural schools in both regions offer about the same number of core courses. In the commercial skills area, North Central rural schools are more apt to offer a three-year "commercial" course than are Southern rural schools, but the Southern schools offer more years of typing and business machines training.

North Central schools are more likely than Southern schools to have three-year sequences in vocational agriculture and industrial arts (as opposed to vocational shop).

The greatest difference, however, seems to be that North Central rural schools place much more emphasis on art and music offerings than do the Southern rural schools.

Table 50

Number of Complete Years of Instruction in Selected Courses Offered by Schools of Various Sizes (Categorized by Number of Students in Grades 10-12)

(Rural Southeast States)

Number of Years Offered During Grades 10-12		Percentage of Schools				
			Rural			
		Urban	Less than 60 Students	60-99 Students	100-199 Students	200 or more Students
English						
	3	100	100	100	100	100
Math-Algebra						
	1	0	0	0	3.2	0
	2	0	0	0	9.7	5.9
	3	100	100	100	87.1	94.1
Math-Shop						
	0	14.3	50	20	22.6	11.8
	1	14.3	0	40	25.8	17.6
	2	42.8	0	0	29.0	55.9
	3	28.6	50	40	22.6	14.7
Social Studies						
	0	0	0	0	3.2	0
	1	0	0	0	0	0
	2	0	50	20	3.2	2.9
	3	100	50	80	93.6	97.1
Afro-American Culture	0	71.4	100	100	90.3	91.2
	1	14.3	0	0	3.2	8.8
	2	14.3	0	0	0	0
	3	0	0	0	6.5	0
Science						
	0	0	0	0	6.5	2.9
	1	0	0	0	0	0
	2	0	50	0	6.5	0
	3	100	50	100	87.0	97.1
Foreign Language #1	0	0	100	40	16.1	3.0
	1	28.6	0	60	51.6	38.2
	2	57.1	0	0	32.3	38.2
	3	14.3	0	0	0	20.6
Foreign Language #2	0	57.1	100	40	48.4	38.2
	1	28.6	0	60	45.2	29.4
	2	14.3	0	0	6.5	17.7
	3	0	0	0	25.9	14.7

Table 50 (Continued)

Number of Complete Years of Instruction in Selected Courses Offered by Schools of Various Sizes (Categorized by Number of Students in Grades 10-12)

(Rural Southeast States)

Number of Years Offered During Grades 10-12		Percentage of Schools				
		Urban	Rural			
			Less than 60 Students	60-99 Students	100-199 Students	200 or more Students
Music						
	0	0	50	40	25.8	8.8
	1	0	50	0	22.6	3.0
	2	28.6	0	60	6.4	29.4
	3	71.4	0	0	45.2	58.8
Art						
	0	57.1	100	80	80.7	52.9
	1	14.3	0	0	12.9	14.7
	2	28.6	0	0	6.4	26.5
	3	0	0	20	0	5.9
Home Economics						
	0	0	0	0	0	2.9
	1	0	0	0	0	0
	2	0	50	0	22.6	20.6
	3	100	50	100	77.4	76.5
Typing						
	0	0	50	0	0	3.0
	1	28.6	0	0	19.3	2.9
	2	57.1	50	60	71.0	79.4
	3	14.3	0	40	9.7	14.7
Business Machines						
	0	14.3	50	0	9.7	14.7
	1	28.5	0	40	25.8	20.6
	2	42.9	50	0	35.5	26.5
	3	14.3	0	60	29.0	38.2
Commercial						
	0	14.3	50	0	9.7	14.7
	1	28.5	0	40	25.8	20.6
	2	42.9	50	0	35.5	26.5
	3	14.3	0	60	29.0	38.2
Vocational Agriculture	0	71.4	0	0	9.7	38.9
	1	0	0	0	16.1	0
	2	0	50	0	74.2	5.9
	3	28.6	50	100	0	85.2

Table 50 (Continued)

Number of Complete Years of Instruction in Selected Courses Offered by Schools of Various Sizes
(Categorized by Number of Students in Grades 10-12)
(Rural Southeast States)

Number of Years Offered During Grades 10-12		Percentage of Schools				
			Rural			
		Urban	Less than 60 Students	60-99 Students	100-199 Students	200 or more Students
Vocational Education	0	57.1	100	100	80.7	55.9
	1	14.3	0	0	3.2	2.9
	2	14.3	0	0	12.9	29.4
	3	14.3	0	0	3.2	11.8
Industrial Arts						
	0	28.6	100	100	80.7	58.8
	1	0	0	0	12.9	26.5
	2	57.1	0	0	3.2	11.7
	3	14.3	0	0	3.2	3.0

Table 51

Number of Complete Years of Instruction in Selected Courses Offered by Schools of Various Sizes (Categorized by Number of Students in Grades 10-12) (Rural North Central States)

Number of Years Offered During Grades 10-12		Percentage of Schools				
			Rural			
		Urban	Less than 60 Students	60-99 Students	100-199 Students	200 or more Students
Math-Algebra						
	2	0	18.2	21.4	10.7	0
	3	100	81.8	78.6	85.7	100
	other	0	0	0	3.6	0
Math-Shop						
	0	16.7	18.1	35.7	25.0	23.1
	1	33.3	45.5	50.0	35.7	61.5
	2	0	27.3	7.1	17.9	0
	3	50.0	9.1	7.1	21.4	15.4
Social Studies						
	2	0	9.1	14.3	7.1	7.7
	3	100	81.8	85.7	89.3	92.3
	other	0	9.1	0	3.6	0
Home Economics						
	0	16.7	18.2	0	3.6	7.7
	1	0	27.3	10.7	7.1	0
	2	16.7	27.3	39.3	17.9	7.7
	3	66.7	27.3	50.0	71.4	84.6
Science						
	1	0	9.1	0	0	0
	2	0	18.2	7.1	3.6	7.7
	3	100	72.7	92.9	96.4	92.3
Typing						
	0	0	9.1	0	0	0
	1	33.3	36.4	46.4	42.9	38.5
	2	66.7	54.5	53.6	46.4	53.8
	3	0	0	0	10.7	7.7
Business Machines						
	0	33.3	90.9	78.6	78.6	53.8
	1	33.3	9.1	21.4	21.4	46.2
	2	33.3	0	0	0	0
Commercial						
	0	0	27.3	0	3.6	7.7
	1	16.7	9.1	14.3	14.3	7.7
	2	16.7	63.6	50.0	35.7	23.1
	3	66.7	0	35.7	42.9	61.5
	other	0	0	0	3.6	0

Table 51 (Continued)

Number of Complete Years of Instruction in Selected Courses Offered by Schools of Various Sizes (Categorized by Number of Students in Grades 10-12) (Rural North Central States)

Number of Years Offered During Grades 10-12		Percentage of Schools				
			Rural			
		Urban	Less than 60 Students	60-99 Students	100-199 Students	200 or more Students
Foreign Language 1 (Including Latin and Greek)						
	0	0	63.6	17.9	3.6	0
	1	0	18.2	39.3	25.0	0
	2	0	18.2	42.9	64.3	46.2
	3	100	0	0	7.1	53.8
Foreign Language 2 (Including Latin and Greek)						
	0	0	100.0	82.1	60.7	30.8
	1	0	0	10.7	25.0	7.7
	2	0	0	7.1	14.3	38.5
	3	100	0	0	0	23.1
Music						
	0	0	0	3.6	3.6	0
	1	0	9.1	0	0	0
	2	16.7	9.1	10.7	10.7	0
	3	83.3	81.8	85.7	85.7	100
Art						
	0	0	90.9	82.1	67.9	23.1
	1	0	0	10.7	7.1	15.4
	2	50.0	9.1	0	21.4	15.4
	3	50.0	0	7.1	3.6	46.2
Vocational Agriculture						
	0	66.7	90.9	67.9	46.4	23.1
	1	0	0	0	0	0
	2	0	0	3.6	0	0
	3	33.3	9.1	28.6	53.6	76.9
Vocational Shop						
	0	66.7	100.0	8.6	67.9	53.8
	1	16.7	0	10.7	17.9	7.7
	2	0	0	7.1	7.1	23.1
	3	16.7	0	3.6	7.1	15.4
Industrial Arts						
	0	16.7	45.5	14.3	28.6	23.1
	1	16.7	9.1	17.9	3.6	23.1
	2	0	27.3	32.1	17.9	7.7
	3	66.7	9.1	35.7	46.4	46.2
	other	0	9.1	0	3.6	0

When the various vocational courses offered by the Southern schools are examined in more detail, we find that the schools attended by the blacks tend to differ in their course offerings from those attended by the whites. Smaller proportions of black than of white students attended high schools that offered two or more years of commercial subjects or industrial arts courses (see Tables 52 and 53). (Smaller proportions of black students also attended schools that offered business machines or vocational education; but these differences were not statistically significant.)

On the other hand, as can be seen in Table 54, larger proportions of black than of white students attended schools that offered courses in vocational agriculture -- a shrinking employment area.

Table 52

Proportion of Youths Who Attended Schools That Offered Two or More Years of Commercial Courses, by Race

Race	School Offered 2 or More Years of Commercial		Totals
	Yes	No	
Black	146 (56%)	114 (44%)	260
White	244 (77%)	71 (23%)	315
Totals	390	185	575

$\chi^2 = 29.63$, df = 1; p = <.001

Table 53

Proportion of Youths Who Attended Schools That Offered Two or More Years of Industrial Arts Courses, by Race

Race	School Offered 2 or More Years of Industrial Arts		Totals
	Yes	No	
Black	8 (3%)	252 (97%)	260
White	91 (29%)	224 (71%)	315
Totals	99	476	575

$\chi^2 = 66.58$, df = 1; p = <.001

Table 54

Proportion of Youths Who Attended Schools That Offered Courses in Vocational Agriculture, by Race

Race	School Offered Vocational Agriculture		Totals
	Yes	No	
Black	245 (94%)	15 (6%)	260
White	254 (81%)	61 (19%)	315
Totals	499	76	575

$\chi^2 = 22.95$, df = 1; p = <.001

Staff Quality

Every teacher, counselor, and school administrator who had been on the staff of the 75 rural and 8 urban (control) high schools during the 1967-68 school year -- the students in our sample were seniors that year -- was sent a short questionnaire. This questionnaire dealt with the background of the staff, their teaching preparation, and their duties during the 1967-68 school year.

Teachers in rural schools tend to be less well-prepared for teaching than those in urban schools; this was also true in the North Central states. Although about 38 percent of the urban schools in the Southeast had 40 percent or more staff with masters degrees or above, less than 25 percent of rural schools in the Southeast had 40 percent or more staff with at least masters degrees; only 20 percent of the North Central rural schools had 40 percent or more staff with masters degrees.

The major difference that we found in staff quality between North Central rural schools and southeastern rural schools is in the use of nondegree staff in the southeastern schools. Eighteen of the rural high schools that we studied in the Southeast had one or more teachers with no college degree; only one of the North Central schools had a teacher with no degree.

These teachers without degrees are found in the larger schools; 13 percent of schools with less than 200 students and 36 percent of schools with 200 or more students had one or more teachers without degrees. Most of these teachers are used as part of the vocational training staff; many have attended vocational or technical schools. The benefits achieved are obvious from Table 55, which is based on data from only the larger (200 or more pupils) schools.

Table 55

Relationship Between the Use of Teachers Without Degrees and Provision by the School of Employment-Related Services (Large Schools Only)

Services	Proportion of Schools Offering Service	
	Schools That Have No Teachers Without Degrees	Schools That Have One or More Teachers Without Degrees
OJT/Work Study	10%	55%
Occupational Familiarization Course	35%	82%
"Career Night" or "Vocation Day"	67%	92%
Field Trips	68%	82%
Job Placement	18%	36%

These nondegree teachers are found in 46 percent of the fully integrated schools but in only 17 percent of the segregated or nominally integrated schools.

There is a similar staffing pattern for trained counselors. Trained counselors are characteristic of fully integrated, large rural schools as shown in Tables 56 and 57.

Table 56

Relationship Between Counselor Training and Segregation-Integration Status of Schools

	School Counselor is:		
School is:	Trained	Untrained	No Counselor
Segregated	10 (26%)	6 (33%)	6 (41%)
Nominally Integrated	13 (33%)	11 (61%)	4 (6%)
Fully Integrated	16 (42%)	1 (29%)	4 (29%)

$\chi^2 = 9.20$, df = 4; p = not significant

Table 57

Relationship Between Counselor Training and School Size

	School Counselor is:		
Number Enrolled in Grades 10-12	Trained	Untrained	No Counselor
<200	7 (19%)	14 (39%)	15 (42%)
200 or more	13 (40%)	13 (40%)	7 (20%)

$\chi^2 = 4.62$, df = 2; p = not significant

Table 58 shows that having a trained counselor in the school is related to a provision of employment-related services; but having those services is more a matter of having someone assigned to counseling duties in the school rather than having a trained counselor in the school. The data for Table 58 are those obtained from large schools only, so Table 58 is comparable with Table 55.

Table 58

Relationship Between Counselor Training and Provision by the School of Employment-Related Services (Large Schools Only)

Services	Proportion of Schools Offering Services		
	Schools That Have a Trained Counselor	Schools That Have an Untrained Counselor	Schools That Have No Counselor
OJT/Work Study	42%	23%	0%
Occupational Familiarization Course	73%	50%	29%
"Career Night" or "Vocation Day"	75%	92%	57%
Field Trips	67%	85%	71%
Job Placement	42%	31%	14%

Student Enrollment

The proportion of students enrolled in southern high schools has been low, but has been increasing steadily in recent years. Only Mississippi reported a smaller proportion of students enrolled in 1970 than in 1960. Alabama increased enrollments by 4 percent during this period; South Carolina, by 7 percent; North Carolina, by 8 percent, and Georgia, by 20 percent(87). These enrollment increases were, however, lower than the national average.

Table 59 compares enrollment of two age groups -- 14-15 year-olds and 16-17 year-olds -- on a state-by-state basis for the southeastern states and the North Central states.* It can be seen that the total enrollment figures for the North Central states exceeds the southeastern states total enrollment by 2.4 to 3.7 percentage points, the small variation depending upon age group and race.

The population of black youths in rural Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Missouri, and Ohio is very stable up through ages 14-15. The influx from other areas occurs among the 16-17 year-olds. Thus the enrollment statistics for the 14-15 year-olds do not reflect any substantial effect of migration patterns. In contrast to much of what is written in the literature, it is clear that a 14-15 year-old, black youth is more apt to be enrolled in school if he lives in the rural South than he is if he lives in the rural areas of Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Missouri, or Ohio -- the only North Central states that have significant numbers of rural, black residents.

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*A summary evaluation of census data shows a clearcut downward shift in enrollment rates and an upward shift in migration rates at age 16. This sudden stepwise change may be related to laws which require school attendance until age 16.

Table 59

	Percent Enrolled in School for:								
	Total State				Total Rural				
	W		B		W		B		
State	14-15	16-17	14-15	16-17	14-15	16-17	14-15	16-17	14-15
Alabama	94.6	85.0	91.8	84.1	93.1	82.1	91.7	83.7	99,696
Georgia	94.3	82.7	92.1	79.4	93.8	79.1	91.9	76.8	129,430
Mississippi	91.8	84.1	92.8	82.0	90.0	82.2	93.3	82.2	54,965
North Carolina	94.9	84.2	92.7	81.9	94.2	83.8	92.9	82.4	146,450
South Carolina	93.6	82.6	92.7	82.9	92.9	83.3	93.4	85.1	69,456
Total	94.2	83.7	92.4	81.9	93.2	82.2	92.7	82.2	499,997
Illinois	97.4	91.1	94.3	85.8	95.9	91.8	84.5	78.2	365,514
Indiana	96.9	88.7	96.0	81.9	96.2	89.5	91.1	45.8	195,140
Iowa	95.3	91.4	93.2	89.9	95.8	92.7	*	*	113,434
Kansas	96.4	91.1	95.7	85.6	96.0	91.8	*	*	84,950
Michigan	97.8	91.7	94.8	85.1	97.1	90.7	79.6	82.1	331,066
Minnesota	97.6	95.3	91.2	90.0	97.0	95.1	*	*	156,574
Missouri	95.8	88.3	94.5	82.7	94.0	87.3	85.3	78.4	159,779
Nebraska	95.7	92.9	99.9	84.8	95.6	93.9	*	*	57,435
North Dakota	95.8	93.1	*	*	96.0	93.7	*	*	27,043
Ohio	97.2	92.0	95.6	88.1	96.5	91.1	94.1	90.9	391,757
South Dakota	95.7	93.5	*	*	94.1	91.8	*	*	28,125
Wisconsin	97.3	94.3	92.6	87.9	96.2	92.4	*	*	176,106
Total	97.0	86.6	94.8**	85.6**	96.1	91.4	86.1●	77.2●	2,086,923

* - Black population very small

** - North and South Dakota excluded

● - States with low black populations excluded

Table 59

in School for:				Total Population by Race, Ages 14-15 & 16-17							
Total Rural				Total State				Total Rural			
W		B		W		B		W		B	
14-15	16-17	14-15	16-17	14-15	16-17	14-15	16-17	14-15	16-17	14-15	16-17
93.1	82.1	91.7	83.7	99,696	94,456	48,729	45,093	44,626	42,127	19,350	18,173
93.8	79.1	91.9	76.8	129,430	122,571	59,333	55,094	56,923	52,949	22,317	21,302
90.0	82.2	93.3	82.2	54,965	51,484	46,072	41,775	30,662	28,642	29,207	26,257
94.2	83.8	92.9	82.4	146,450	143,678	59,443	56,890	85,935	83,183	34,282	33,029
92.9	83.3	93.4	85.1	69,456	68,244	44,210	42,005	36,350	34,669	27,989	26,530
93.2	82.2	92.7	82.2	499,997	480,433	257,787	240,857	254,496	241,570	133,145	125,291
95.9	91.8	84.5	78.2	365,514	347,669	68,033	58,878	78,513	73,628	1,236	1,274
96.2	89.5	91.1	45.8	195,140	186,317	17,639	16,601	79,489	74,717	340	1,292
95.8	92.7	*	*	113,434	109,579	1,486	1,357	54,607	52,544	42	35
96.0	91.8	*	*	84,950	81,242	4,885	4,256	32,658	31,439	231	209
97.1	90.7	79.6	82.1	331,066	312,148	47,239	42,098	104,942	97,696	1,584	1,512
97.0	95.1	*	*	156,574	149,870	1,504	1,341	59,659	57,086	29	25
94.0	87.3	85.3	78.4	159,779	150,509	23,144	20,439	57,006	52,640	1,383	1,247
95.6	93.9	*	*	57,435	55,413	2,004	1,705	24,929	24,141	50	83
96.0	93.7	*	*	27,043	25,866	65	48	16,637	16,140	11	3
96.5	91.1	94.1	90.9	391,757	369,086	46,829	41,797	119,461	110,602	1,481	1,701
94.1	91.8	*	*	28,125	26,903	48	74	16,690	16,038	9	47
96.2	92.4	*	*	176,106	167,540	5,572	5,685	68,399	64,249	183	276
96.1	91.4	86.1●	77.2●	2,086,923	1,982,142	219,335**	194,157**	712,990	670,920	6,024●	7,026●

small
a excluded
populations excluded

The Dropout Problem in Southern Schools

Extent of the Problem

Table 59 shows that a smaller percentage of 16-17 year-olds than of 14-15 year-olds are enrolled in school; the difference reflects the dropouts that occur during the most critical age level when schooling is suddenly no longer mandatory. When we look at Table 59, we find an exceptionally small dropout rate (4.7 percentage points drop in enrollment) among rural youths in the North Central states, a fact that is in line with the findings of our earlier study, and a marked dropout (11.0 percentage points drop) among the 16-17 year-old white students in the rural South.

The picture for black rural youths is not as clear with respect to dropout rates. In the North Central states, the number of black rural youths 16-17 years old is greater than the number who are 14-15 years old. The additional youths are, no doubt, immigrants; obviously, large proportions of those who dropped out of southern schools did not re-enroll when they moved North. A very logical argument can be made that these dropouts from southern schools show up in the statistics in a way that overweights the apparent dropout rate in the rural North and underweights the apparent dropout rate in the rural South. If so, the dropout picture for black youths in the rural South is indeed much worse than in the rural North, although this is not obvious from the statistics in Table 59.

Among the rural youths in our sample*, all of whom entered high school, 10.9 percent of white and 18.2 percent of black youths dropped out of high school before graduating. In comparison with the 3.5 percent dropout rate in the North Central states, this is indeed high.

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* See Appendix C for an explanation of why this sample did not include those who dropped out of school before the 9th grade.

Factors Related to Dropping Out of High School

Race. Many of the black youths in the Southeast come from families that are extremely poor. Many of them cannot afford to buy lunch at school or to pay other school-related expenses. A chief court counselor in a North Carolina county stated:

> "So many of these kids are very much aware that their clothes are not as nice as [those of] their peers. And they will stay home to keep from being embarrassed from going to school with shoes with the soles off, dresses that have been patched and patched, clothes that are not in style. They lack clothes; lack lunch money. I know a lot of kids that will stay home from school rather than admit that they don't have lunch money. ...I have seen these kids stay home for lack of having their fees the first days of school, and they, of course, miss the orientation of the school and the orientation of the classes they are in. They get behind, their grades are low, and they drop out because they lose interest."

An NYC worker in a Mississippi county said much the same thing:

> "A lot of them drop out because of economic reasons. I have had so many say to me 'I can't keep up with the others.' It would have to go back to economic reasons. The family isn't making enough so they can't afford to dress their child the same as the whites."

Others who were interviewed said that black youths were likely to drop out to help support their families, and that many black girls drop out because of pregnancy. Thus, the following hypothesis was tested:

- More black than white youths leave high school before graduation, and report the following reasons for doing so:
  - lacked proper clothing,
  - lacked money to finance their education,
  - had to help support the family,
  - pregnancy.

Among those rural youths in our sample who did not go to college, 24 percent of the white youths and 31 percent of the black youths dropped out of high school; this difference was not statistically significant. The college attendance rates differ for the races, however, and among all rural youth, a significant difference in dropout rates is found (see Table 60.)

There is not a significant difference between black and white youths insofar as saying they dropped out to help support their families, or because the lacked clothing or money. However, there is a significant difference between the numbers of black and white girls who said they dropped out because of pregnancy; 8 percent of black girls but less than 2 percent of white girls dropped out of school for this reason (see Table 61). Despite this relationship, the proportion of black girls who dropped out of school for all reasons is not significantly greater than the proportion of white girls who dropped out. White males are no more likely to drop out than white girls but black males are far more likely to drop out than black girls (see Table 62).

Table 60

Proportion of All Rural Youth Who Dropped Out of High School, by Race

Race	Dropped out of H.S.		Totals
	Yes	No	
Black	51 (18%)	229 (82%)	280
White	35 (11%)	287 (89%)	322
Totals	86	516	602

$\chi^2 = 6.59$, df = 1; p = <.02

Table 61

Proportion Who Dropped Out of High School Because of Pregnancy, by Race

Race	Dropped out of H.S. Because of Pregnancy		Totals
	Yes	No	
Black	17 (8%)	188 (92%)	205
White	3 (1%)	209 (99%)	212
Totals	20	397	417

$\chi^2 = 10.79$, df = 1; p = <.005

Table 62

Proportion Who Dropped Out of High School, by Race & Sex

Race & Sex	Dropped out of H.S.		Totals
	Yes	No	
White Male	13 (10%)	97 (90%)	110
White Female	22 (12%)	190 (88%)	212
Totals	35	287	322

$\chi^2 = 0.16$, df = 1; p = not significant

Black Male	22 (29%)	53 (71%)	75
Black Female	29 (14%)	176 (86%)	205
Totals	51	229	280

$\chi^2 = 8.50$, df = 1; $p = <.005$

Dropout Prevention

–*Income Supplements*. Most of the people interviewed in the southeast indicated that many young people drop out of school because of poverty. Therefore we tested the following hypothesis:

- The school dropout rate does
  not differ systematically
  with family income.

It was found, for both blacks and whites, that students from the poorer family are more likely to drop out of school than those from families with higher incomes, as shown in Table 63. However, the critical point seems to be different for the two races: for blacks the key division point appears to be less than $2000 per year; for whites, less than $3000 a year.

Table 63

Proportion Who Dropped Out of School, by Race and Income Level

Family Income Level & Race	Dropped Out of School		Totals
	Yes	No	
White:			
<\$3,000	8 (38%)	13 (62%)	21
\$3,000-7,499	20 (15%)	110 (85%)	130
≥7,500	10 (6%)	152 (94%)	162
Totals	38	275	313
	χ^2 = 19.95, df = 2; p = <.001		
Black:			
<\$2,000	28 (31%)	63 (69%)	91
\$2,000-7,499	26 (16%)	132 (84%)	158
≥7,500	2 (12%)	14 (88%)	16
Totals	56	209	265
	χ^2 = 7.86, df = 2; p = <.02		

These, and other findings related to family income may be inaccurate, however. There are two reasons for not accepting reported income at face value. It is difficult, for one thing, to figure actual farm family income.

Moreover, past experience in survey work indicated that respondents, particularly rural residents, are often reluctant to divulge the amount of their yearly family income. This reluctance takes either of two forms: a refusal to estimate family income; or an estimate which, because it is inconsistent with other answers, is obviously much higher than the actual family income.

Anticipating these problems, we used two measures of family income. The first was the "estimated total yearly income" of the family in dollars; the other, a "Purchasing Power Index" (PPI) based on the answer to the following questionnaire item:

Between 1964 and 1968: (check the appropriate box)

☐ Our family did not have enough money for food, clothing and transportation;

☐ Our family had enough money for food, clothing and transportation;

☐ Our family had some surplus money left over for extras;

☐ Our family had enough money for vacations, education and either savings or investment.

The purchasing power index was shown in the North Central states study to be very highly related to the mean income per family member. It has a somewhat lower correlation with estimates of total yearly family income; the relationship of total family income to Purchasing Power Index among the subjects in the present study is shown in Table 64.

Table 64

Relationship of Purchasing Power Index to Estimated Total Family Income

Purchasing Power Index Level	Number of Families with Estimated Yearly Family Income of:					
	<$3,000	$3,000-4,999	$5,000-7,499	$7,500-9,999	$10,000 & over	Unknown
Black:						
1	52	10	5	2	1	3
2	52	27	12	3	1	2
3	3	0	4	1	0	1
4	1	1	2	1	1	0
White:						
1	7	1	0	0	0	0
2	12	21	30	12	2	2
3	1	3	20	14	6	1
4	0	0	6	7	10	1

The Purchasing Power Index proved to be a more sensitive measure of the kind of poverty that is related to dropping out of school. Of those in Level 1 (families without enough money to buy essential food, clothing and shelter), 62 percent of the white students and 41 percent of the black students dropped out of school (see Table 65).

Table 65

Proportion Who Dropped Out, by Purchasing Power Index Level and Race

Purchasing Power Index Level & Race	Dropped Out of H.S.		Totals
	Yes	No	
White:			
1	5 (62%)	3 (38%)	8
2	17 (22%)	62 (78%)	79
3 & 4	12 (17%)	57 (83%)	69
Totals	34	122	156
	$\chi^2 = 8.56$, df = 2; p = <.02		
Black:			
1	29 (41%)	42 (59%)	71
2	14 (15%)	81 (85%)	95
3 & 4	3 (20%)	12 (80%)	15
Totals	46	135	181
	$\chi^2 = 14.86$, df = 2; p = <.001		

Among those school dropouts who responded to our questionnaire, over 90 percent of the black youths but only 36 percent of white youths say they would have stayed in school had financial aid been available to them. (See Table 66).

Our findings then, show that one effect of poverty is a tendency for poor youths to drop out of school. Agreement can probably be reached that this is an undesirable cause-effect relationship that should be dealt with by any program claiming to be aimed at mitigating the problems of rural youth in the Southeast. Some form of income supplement is indicated as part of the youth program as long as welfare payments or other systems of monetary aid fail to provide enough money for essentials.

Table 66

Proportion of School Dropouts Who Say They Would Have Stayed In School Had Financial Aid Been Available, By Race

Race	Would Have Stayed in School if Financial Aid Had Been Available		Totals
	Yes	No	
White	12 (36%)	21 (64%)	33
Black	40 (91%)	4 (9%)	44
Totals	52	25	77

$\chi^2 = 25.59$, df = 1; p = <.001

Most approaches to providing income supplements for students from low-income families as a measure to prevent school dropouts (most such payments would go to black youths) will not gain the acceptance of the rural leadership. It seems likely that the only acceptable way in which income supplements can be provided to these youths is by paying them for part-time work. This approach will gain acceptance from the rural leaders who, we have found from our interviews, are primarily work oriented.

A part-time job or "work experience" was found, in the North Central states, to be unrelated to later employment experience[*] and could not be justified as a preventative measure against school dropouts in the rural parts of the North Central states where the school dropout rate is very low. It does appear to have relevance in the Southeast where the dropout rate is higher and where large proportions of the dropouts might stay in school if financial aid were available to them.

If part-time work is to be considered as a means of providing an income supplement to prevent school dropouts, it becomes important to know something about the availability of part-time work in the rural Southeast.

The availability of part-time work in a small town in the Southeast is most affected by numbers of population both within the town and in the surrounding area -- as was the case in the North Central states study. Most of the nonfarm business in these small towns in the Southeast is in service occupations, an employment sector that relies on an adequate population base. Thus the smaller the town, the less likely it is that part-time employment will be available. A South

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[*] There is no evidence in our studies that the part-time job has any beneficial effects, either in the North Central states or in the Southeast, in terms of entry level wages or later employment. See the section of this report under "Factors that Affect Employment -- Part-time Work".

Carolina guidance counselor discussed the relationship between size of town and the availability of part-time jobs:

> "There are only a small number of part-time jobs because there are only five or six businesses which can hire. Usually these jobs are in the clothing stores which hire only two or three people. They can't hire more because you don't have a large volume of people coming in to buy. They would be spending out more money than they'd be taking in."

A Community Action Program coordinator in North Carolina blamed the scarcity of part-time jobs for youth in his county on a lack of local leadership:

> "We just do not have enough interested leaders in this area to get some type of good youth program going. It seems, since this is an industrial area, that these people could come together and could form some form of rural youth co-ops where they would have part-time employment during the school season and full-time employment during the summer."

In the North Central states study, it was found that young people from the "better families" in small towns were most likely to be hired for any available jobs. In the South, class bias in hiring might appear to be less important than racial bias. However, it is very often difficult to separate the two factors.

When we controlled for race and sex we found no difference in the proportion of youths from poor families who obtained part-time work and the proportion of youths from more affluent families who obtained part-time work.

Some of the trouble southeastern youths have in obtaining part-time employment does appear to be related to racial factors. This was pointed out by a high school curriculum director in Georgia:

> "About three weeks ago I asked four blacks to go to the [grocery] stores -- they are two-bit grocery stores here, and not really 'white' stores -- and the supermarket, the five-and-ten, and the drug stores, which hire young people to help out during Christmas....They were turned down."

Several persons in the rural Southeast said that discrimination in hiring practices for part-time jobs occur there. A man who directs a training program for rural youth stated:

> "The biggest thing right now in school is this employment thing....The [young people] sign up some time during the school season for employment, and they're told flatly that they 'don't want any blacks.' This is all wrong. The racial problems here are sugar coated. They want you to feel like everything is fine....They'll tell you that what we have is wonderful -- the racial situation here. But when you come right down to the nitty gritty, it is not so wonderful."

Even though black youths are qualified to do the work, they often are not hired. A woman working for a South Carolina Community Action Program remarked:

> "We do have black children that can run a cash register and can type, but they aren't hired. We have a young man that works here with us during the summer .... I know that he is capable .... He's determined to go on to college. He's very -- now you talk about poverty; he is on the poverty level. (His mother had a large family; his father is dead.) He drives a school bus, and that's his only source of income .... I sent him to ask for a job in the drug store during the Christmas holidays .... He was turned down.
>
> "Another example of this was one young lady who told me that the man in the ______ grocery store asked her if she knew how to run a cash register. Did she know the different prices? She told him that the prices are stamped on the things that the person was purchasing and she could read them. She even asked him to give her a test on the cash register, but he didn't do it."

We found about the same proportions of black and of white girls worked part-time while in school (42 percent and 47 percent respectively). White males were much more likely than black males to have done part-time work while in school, as Table 67 shows.

Table 67

Proportions of Male Rural Youth, by Race, Who Worked Part-time While in School

Race	Worked Part-time	
	Yes	No
White	77 (72%)	30 (28%)
Black	38 (52%)	35 (48%)

$\chi^2 = 7.45$, df = 1; $p = <.01$

Table 68 shows the percentage of each group who looked for part-time work in town and were unable to find it in each of the four years 1965-1968. Very few of those who looked for work in town were not able to find it; low-income blacks had the most difficulty.

Table 68

Proportions Who Looked for Work in a Small Town and Couldn't Find it Between 1965 & 1968, by Race, Sex & Family Income

Race	Sex	Family Income	Year			
			1965	1966	1967	1968
Black	Males	<$3000	9%	9%	6%	6%
		≥$3000	0%	0%	4%	0%
White	Males	<$3000	0%	0%	0%	0%
		≥$3000	0%	0%	1%	1%
Black	Females	<$3000	8%	3%	3%	4%
		≥$3000	2%	1%	3%	3%
White	Females	<$3000	0%	0%	0%	0%
		≥$3000	3%	3%	5%	5%

The proportions who worked on a farm at some time between 1965-1968 are shown below in Table 69. Approximately equal proportions of white and black males worked on a farm. Thus it also appears that race is not a factor that affects part-time farm work, except among girls. Most girls who work part-time for pay on farms come from low-income black families.

Table 69

Proportion Who Worked on a Farm Between 1965 & 1968, by Race & Sex

Race & Sex	Worked on a Farm Between 1965-1968		Totals
	Yes	No	
Black Females	37 (19%)	159 (81%)	196
White Females	18 (9%)	190 (91%)	208
Totals	55	349	404
		χ^2- 8.97, df = 1; p = <.005	
Black Males	23 (29%)	57 (71%)	80
White Males	33 (30%)	76 (70%)	109
Totals	56	133	189

χ^2= 0.05, df = 1; p = not significant

Very few young people who looked for part-time farm work were unable to find it. And, as might be expected, it was easier for them to obtain employment on a farm as they got older. Table 70 shows the percentage of each group who looked for farm work and were unable to find it in each of the four years 1965-1968.

Table 70

Proportion Who Looked for Farm Work but Were Unable to Find it Between 1965 & 1968, by Race, Sex, & Family Income

Race	Sex	Family Income	Year			
			1965	1966	1967	1968
Black	Males	<$3000	9%	9%	6%	6%
		≥$3000	4%	0%	4%	0%
White	Males	<$3000	0%	0%	0%	0%
		≥$3000	1%	0%	0%	0%
Black	Females	<$3000	0%	1%	1%	1%
		≥$3000	5%	3%	1%	0%
White	Females	<$3000	0%	0%	0%	0%
		≥$3000	1%	1%	1%	1%

There is an apparent inconsistency in these data. Large numbers of our black sample came from families with very low incomes; large numbers of those who drop out of school say they could have stayed in school if they had more money; very few say they looked for part-time work and couldn't find it. Three different explanations seem possible; the poor youths didn't want to work, or the part-time jobs didn't pay enough to provide a sufficient income supplement to have any effect, or the poor, black youths didn't bother to look for part-time jobs because they knew the jobs were not available to them (see the section on "Factors Affecting Outmigration -- Job Discrimination").

Vocational Training. Many educators whom we interviewed in the South stressed the need for vocational training in the public schools, and linked vocational training to the correction of the dropout problem. They felt that the provision of a broader range of vocational training programs in the public schools would hold the interest of the student enough to keep him in school. A high school superintendent in Georgia stated:

> "At the eighth or ninth grade level you have got to provide something vocational, or those students who are not able to go on to college will get disinterested in school and end up by dropping out. Vocational courses have a kind of holding power to keep these students in the schools."

It is interesting that an NYC Director in North Carolina saw vocational training as being primarily for low-ability or misfit students:

> "It used to be in public schools that everyone was supposed to do the same thing -- take the same courses. This was one of the reasons that the students dropped out. The schools just didn't adjust to anyone with low ability, or those who started behind, or those who didn't fit their pattern. Now, more vocational courses are being provided in the schools to retain the interest of these students. This should cut down on the dropout problem tremendously."

Some schools in the South that are unable to provide a variety of vocational programs for their students because of low enrollments or financial problems allow students to take vocational courses at separate vocational-technical schools. The students are given high school credits for these courses. A high school principal in a small town in Georgia talked about such a program:

> "Our high school seniors get the opportunity to take part in a program of vocational courses at ______ Vocational School, which is quite a distance -- in fact, about 60 miles from here. We have a bus going there from our school. This is the first year of operation and we have about 30 or 35 students taking part in the program. Next year we anticipate a full busload of about 60 or 70 students. This is going to be a tremendous help for us. We would very much like to offer them more vocationally."

From the data it appears that whether or not vocational courses are offered in the Southeast high schools may, indeed, be an important factor influencing whether youths drop out of or remain in high school. Schools that offered courses in business machines and in vocational education had lower dropout rates than those that did not offer such courses (see Tables 71 and 72).

Table 71

Relationship of Dropout Rate and Offering Courses in Business Machines, by Race

School Offered Business Machines	Dropped Out of High School		Totals
	Yes	No	
Black:			
Yes	19 (14%)	113 (86%)	132
No	37 (29%)	91 (71%)	128
Totals	56	204	260
	$\chi^2 = 8.09$, df = 1; p = <.005		
White:			
Yes	22 (12%)	160 (88%)	182
No	18 (14%)	115 (86%)	133
Totals	40	275	315

$\chi^2 = 0.14$, df = 1; p = not significant

Table 72

Relationship of Dropout Rate and Offering Courses in Vocational Education, by Race

School Offered Vocational Education	Dropped Out of High School		Totals
	Yes	No	
Black:			
Yes	30 (21%)	111 (79%)	141
No	26 (22%)	93 (78%)	119
Totals	56	204	260
	$\chi^2 = 0.01$, df = 1; p = not significant		
White:			
Yes	15 (9%)	155 (91%)	170
No	25 (17%)	120 (83%)	145
Totals	40	275	315

$\chi^2 = 5.00$, df = 1; p = <.05

Post-Secondary Education

College Attendance

Because of the large proportion of poverty-level black families in the rural Southeast, we expected to find that:

- More black than white youths report not going to college because they could not afford to go to college.

This hypothesis is substantiated, as shown in Table 73a. Only 9 percent of white noncollege youth, but 31 percent of black noncollege youth, said they did not attend college because they could not afford to go to college.

Table 73a

Proportion of Noncollege Youths Who Said They did not go to College Because They did not Have Enough Money to go to College, by Race

Race	Had No Money for College		Totals
	Yes	No	
White	14 (9%)	143 (91%)	157
Black	58 (31%)	131 (69%)	189
Totals	72	274	346

$\chi^2 = 24.66$, df = 1; p = <.001

Table 73b shows college attendance for each race by family income. The critical income level is different for blacks and whites. White students from families with incomes of less than $3000 tend not to go to college; black students from families with incomes between $2000 and $3000 are as likely to go to college as those from families with incomes above $3000. Those below $2000 tend not to go to college.

Table 73b

College Attendance by Race and Family Income

Family Income	Number Who Attended College	Number Who Did Not Attend College
White Students:		
<$3000	3 (12%)	22 (88%)
≥$3000	162 (55%)	132 (45%)
	$\chi^2 = 17.14$, df = 1; p = <.001	
Black Students:		
<$2000	18 (19%)	77 (81%)
≥$2000	73 (42%)	102 (58%)
	$\chi^2 = 14.28$, df = 1; p = <.001	

In the North Central states study it was found that the higher the proportion of the county population employed in agriculture, the higher the proportion of young people that attended college. However, in many of the southeastern counties that are dependent on agriculture, the incidence of poverty is high, especially among blacks, as shown in Table 74.

Table 74

Proportion of Rural Youths Whose Families Had Incomes Below $3,000 by Proportion of County Population Engaged in Agriculture

(White Youths)

% of County Pop. Employed in Agriculture	Number of Youths from Families With Incomes of:	
	Less than $3,000	$3,000 or More
15% or less	22 (8%)	259 (92%)
Over 15%	4 (10%)	35 (90%)

$\chi^2 = 0.27$, df = 1; p = not significant

(Black Youths)

% of County Pop. Employed in Agriculture	Less than $3,000	$3,000 or More
15% or less	109 (49%)	111 (51%)
Over 15%	49 (72%)	19 (28%)

$\chi^2 = 10.63$, df = 1; $p = < .005$

It was anticipated, therefore, that the following hypothesis would hold for white youths but not for black youths:

- A larger proportion of young people go on to college from rural counties that are highly dependent upon agriculture than from counties that are less dependent upon agriculture.

As expected, the data show that this hypothesis is substantiated for white youths but not for black youths (see Table 75).

In counties where a large proportion of the population (over 15 percent) were employed in agricultural occupations, 84 percent of white youths went to college; only 47 percent of white youths from counties with a small proportion (15 percent or less) employed in agriculture went to college.

Although not statistically significant, the results for black youths seem even more startling. Keeping in mind that 72 percent of the black youths in high-agriculture counties come from families with incomes below $3,000, it is surprising to find a college attendance rate of 42 percent; in the less agricultural rural counties (in which 43 percent had family incomes below $3,000) the college attendance rate is only 30 percent.

Table 75

Proportion Who Attended College from Counties With Low and High Proportions Employed in Agriculture, by Race

Proportion of County Employed in Agriculture	Attended College		Totals
	Yes	No	
White:			
Low	135 (47%)	150 (53%)	285
High	31 (84%)	6 (16%)	37
Totals	166	156	322

$\chi^2 = 17.39$, df = 1; $p = <.001$

Black:			
Low	63 (30%)	148 (70%)	211
High	29 (42%)	40 (58%)	69
Totals	92	188	280

$\chi^2 = 3.49$, df = 1; p = not significant

College attendance among rural youths was found to be related to the size of the high school they attended. The interrelationships found among the variables suggest that this effect is independent of the relationship of college attendance to family income or to growing up in a rural county highly dependent on agriculture. The following tables show the interrelationships that lead to this conclusion.

Table 76 shows that family income and size of school attended are not strongly related.

Table 76

Family Income of Students Enrolled in Small Schools and of those Enrolled in Large Schools, by Race

(White Students)

Enrollment Grades 10-12	Family Income	
	<3,000	≥3,000
<200	9 (8%)	102 (92%)
≥200	12 (6%)	190 (94%)

$\chi^2 = 0.54$, df = 1; p = not significant

(Black Students)

Enrollment Grades 10-12	<3,000	≥3,000
<200	46 (65%)	25 (35%)
≥200	110 (53%)	97 (47%)

$\chi^2 = 2.91$, df = 1; p = not significant

Table 77 shows that: a) by far the majority of small schools are in the more industrialized rural counties; b) white students in highly agricultural counties are more apt to attend small schools than are white students in less agricultural rural counties; c) white students are more apt to attend small schools than black students are; and d) black students in highly agricultural counties are no more likely to attend small schools than are black students in more industrialized rural counties.

Table 77

Proportion of Students From Counties Highly Dependent and Not Highly Dependent on Agriculture Who Attended Different Size Schools, by Race

(White Students)

% of County Population Employed in Agriculture	Number of Students Who Attended School With: <200 Students	200 or More	Totals
15% or less	90 (32%)	192 (68%)	282
Over 15%	23 (64%)	13 (36%)	36
Totals	113	205	318

χ^2= 14.25, df = 1; p = <.001

(Black Students)

15% or less	57 (27%)	158 (73%)	215
Over 15%	17 (24%)	55 (76%)	72
Totals	74	213	287

χ^2= 0.24, df = 1; p = not significant

We found that among black students and female students (especially among black, female students) that those who attended small high schools were more likely to attend college than those who attended larger high schools (see Table 78).

Table 78

Proportion of Students from Different High Schools Who Attended College, by Race and Sex

Size of High School Attended--Number of Pupils, Grades 10-12	Attended College	
	Yes	No
White Females:		
<200	38 (57%)	28 (43%)
≥ 200	59 (44%)	75 (56%)

$\chi^2 = 3.25$, df = 1; p = not significant

White Males:		
<200	21 (50%)	21 (50%)
≥ 200	44 (65%)	24 (35%)

$\chi^2 = 2.32$, df = 1; p = not significant

Black Females:		
<200	24 (51%)	23 (49%)
≥ 200	48 (32%)	104 (68%)

$\chi^2 = 5.90$, df = 1; p = $<.02$

Black Males:		
<200	7 (29%)	17 (71%)
≥ 200	12 (25%)	36 (75%)

$\chi^2 = 0.14$, df = 1; p = not significant

Combined Groups:

White: $\chi^2 = 0.004$, df = 1; p = not significant

Black: $\chi^2 = 4.385$, df = 1; p = $<.05$

Male: $\chi^2 = 0.580$, df = 1; p = not significant

Female: $\chi^2 = 7.140$, df = 1; p = $<.01$

The question that naturally arises is, "What are the characteristics of small schools that prompt black students and female students to go to college?" In an earlier section of this report we showed that the course offerings of small schools were less varied than those in smaller schools. Since many small schools can afford only one curriculum, everyone takes what amounts to a college preparatory course. This may be part of the answer. However, this explanation would have to assume a selective effect -- taking a college preparatory course would lead to college attendance among females to a much greater degree than among males. Our other findings do not substantiate this hypothesis.

A detailed analysis of our data leads us to conclude that a cluster of occupationally oriented services centering around vocational counseling have a negative influence on the college attendance of black students. The larger schools tend to offer these services; the smaller schools and segregated schools do not.

In a previous section of this report, entitled "Staff Quality", we have shown the strong relationships that exist between school size, school segregation, the presence of counselors in the school, the presence of teaching staff without degrees, and the provision of OJT/Work Study, Occupational Familiarization courses, "Career Night" or Vocation Day", field trips, and job placement services. We will not repeat this material at this point, but the reader should review the section on "Staff Quality" to better understand the implications of the following findings.

Table 79 shows that black students who attend schools that offer a broad array of employment-related services are less apt to go to college than their peers who attend schools that lack these services.

Table 79

Proportion of Students From Schools That Offer Specified Services Who Attend College, by Race

School Offers:		White Students		Black Students	
		College	Noncollege	College	Noncollege
OJT/Work Study					
	Yes	69 (51%)	67 (49%)	21 (27%)	57 (73%)
	No	96 (52%)	88 (48%)	65 (36%)	115 (64%)
		$\chi^2 = 0.06$, df = 1; p = not significant		$\chi^2 = 2.06$, df = 1; p = not significant	
Occupational Familiarization Course					
	Yes	76 (53%)	68 (47%)	33 (26%)	93 (74%)
	No	83 (49%)	85 (51%)	49 (40%)	72 (60%)
		$\chi^2 = 0.35$, df = 1; p = not significant		$\chi^2 = 5.70$, df = 1; p = <.02	
"Career Night" or "Vocation Day"					
	Yes	136 (54%)	115 (46%)	76 (31%)	169 (69%)
	No	29 (42%)	40 (58%)	16 (48%)	17 (52%)
		$\chi^2 = 3.20$, df = 1; p = not significant		$\chi^2 = 4.01$, df = 1; p = <.05	
Field Trips					
	Yes	113 (60%)	74 (40%)	60 (31%)	131 (69%)
	No	51 (39%)	81 (61%)	41 (37%)	26 (63%)
		$\chi^2 = 14.71$, df = 1; p = <.001		$\chi^2 = 1.21$, df = 1; p = not significant	
Job Placement					
	Yes	58 (57%)	43 (43%)	29 (34%)	56 (66%)
	No	106 (49%)	111 (51%)	56 (33%)	114 (67%)
		$\chi^2 = 2.03$, df = 1; p = not significant		$\chi^2 = 0.03$, df = 1; p = not significant	

Tables 50 and 51 suggest, however, that the staff that goes along with providing these services may be a more important influence than the services themselves. These results strongly suggest that negative counseling takes place with respect to college education for black students and, to a lesser degree, female students.

Table 80

Relationship of Attending High School in Which One or More Teachers Did Not Have a Degree and Attending College, by Race and Sex

School Had Teachers Without Degrees	Number of Students Who Attended College	
	Attended College	Did Not Attend College
White Females:		
Yes	40 (46%)	47 (54%)
No	57 (48%)	61 (52%)
	$\chi^2 = 0.11$, df = 1; p = not significant	
White Males:		
Yes	26 (70%)	11 (30%)
No	38 (53%)	34 (47%)
	$\chi^2 = 3.08$, df = 1; p = not significant	
Black Males:		
Yes	6 (17%)	30 (83%)
No	11 (31%)	24 (69%)
	$\chi^2 = 2.12$, df = 1; p = not significant	
Black Females:		
Yes	20 (22%)	71 (78%)
No	46 (44%)	59 (56%)
	$\chi^2 = 10.40$, df = 1; $p = <.005$	

Table 81

Relationship of Counselor Training and Attending College, by Race and Sex

Counselor Training	Attended College Yes	Attended College No	Totals
White Females:			
Trained Counselor	52 (51%)	50 (49%)	102
Untrained Counselor	35 (44%)	44 (56%)	79
No Counselor	11 (38%)	18 (62%)	29
Totals	98	112	210

$\chi^2 = 1.83$, df = 2; p = not significant

White Males:			
Trained Counselor	31 (62%)	19 (38%)	50
Untrained Counselor	28 (62%)	17 (38%)	45
No Counselor	6 (50%)	6 (50%)	12
Totals	65	42	107

$\chi^2 = 0.66$, df = 2; p = not significant

Black Males:			
Trained Counselor	5 (26%)	14 (74%)	19
Untrained Counselor	8 (29%)	20 (71%)	28
No Counselor	7 (28%)	18 (72%)	25
Totals	20	52	72

$\chi^2 = 0.02$, df = 2; p = not significant

Black Females:			
Trained Counselor	17 (23%)	57 (71%)	74
Untrained Counselor	22 (31%)	48 (69%)	70
No Counselor	31 (53%)	27 (47%)	58
Totals	70	132	202

$\chi^2 = 13.83$, df = 2; $p = <.001$

Vocational or Trade School Attendance

Because white youths are more likely to attend college than black youths, it was thought that black youths might show more inclination to go to a vocational or trade school than whites. However, 21 percent of blacks and 18 percent of whites went to such a school, and this difference is not statistically significant.

When other factors are taken into account some interesting relationships are noted. It was found that males who grew up closer than 81 miles to a major city are more likely to attend a vocational or trade school than males who grew up farther than 80 miles away from a large city (25 percent and 8 percent respectively -- see Table 82). This relationship does not occur among females. Nor was there any significant relationship, for any group, between attending vocational or trade school and the proportion employed in agriculture in their home county.

Table 82

Proportion of Rural Males Who Attended a Vocational or Trade School, by Distance from a City of 100,000 or More Population

Distance from Major City	Attended Vocational School		Totals
	Yes	No	
<81 mi.	31 (25%)	93 (75%)	124
>80 mi.	5 (8%)	56 (92%)	61
Totals	36	149	185

$\chi^2 = 7.37$, df = 1; p = <.01

For noncollege whites there was also a significant relationship between attending a school that offered job placement and getting post-high school vocational training; and between attending a school that had a trained counselor and getting post-high school vocational training. Those whose high schools offered job placement were much more likely to go to a vocational school after graduation than those whose high schools did not offer this service (see Table 83).

Table 83

Proportion of Noncollege White Youths Who Attended a Vocational School After High School, by School Offered Job Placement Services

School Offered Job Placement	Attended Vocational School		Totals
	Yes	No	
Yes	17 (41%)	24 (59%)	41
No	21 (18%)	93 (82%)	114
Totals	38	117	155

$\chi^2 = 8.65$, df = 1; $p = <.005$

White students who attended a high school that had a trained counselor were less likely to attend a vocational or trade school after graduation than those who attended a school that had an untrained counselor or no counselor (see Table 84).

Table 84

Proportion of Noncollege White Youth Who Attended Vocational School After Graduation, by School Had a Trained Counselor

School Had a Trained Counselor	Attended Vocational School		Totals
	Yes	No	
Yes	12 (17%)	59 (83%)	71
No	26 (31%)	57 (69%)	83
Totals	38	116	154

$\chi^2 = 4.28$, df = 1; $p = <.05$

For noncollege black students, the only significant relationship with attending a vocational or trade school was whether or not they had taken vocational courses in high school. Those who had taken such courses were more apt to get post-high school vocational training (see Table 85).

Table 85

Proportion of Noncollege Black Youths Who Attended a Vocational or Trade School After Graduation, by Took High School Vocational Courses

Took Vocational Courses in High School	Attended Vocational School		Totals
	Yes	No	
Yes	28 (36%)	49 (64%)	77
No	17 (20%)	68 (80%)	85
Totals	45	117	162

$\chi^2 = 5.39$, df = 1; $p = <.025$

THE EFFECT OF SELECTED VARIABLES ON OCCUPATIONAL ADJUSTMENT

Measures of Occupational Adjustment

Two measures of quality of employment were used in this study -- the hourly wage the respondent received in his entry job and an employment score for the three years between June of 1968 and June of 1971. These measures were used with only the noncollege students, since any measure of employment adjustment for college students is neither meaningful nor relevant to the purposes of the present study.

The hourly wage obtained by the respondent when he began his first full-time job following graduation from high school was used as the measure of "salary in entry level job". If the respondent had not held a full-time job during the three-year period under consideration, then the hourly wage for the first part-time job held during the three years was used.

A complete employment history was obtained for each youth for the period between June 1968 and June 1971 (including periods of unemployment). Each respondent also indicated the highest skill level job he had ever held. This work history was scored, by a system developed in an earlier study[*], to obtain an employment score -- called the "Occupational Adjustment Score". This scoring system (see Table 86) takes into account quality as well as quantity of employment, and automatically prorates the scores for those periods of time in which the subject was unemployed but not looking for work.

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[*] Miles, G. H., "Preliminary Phase: Effects of Vocational Training and Other Factors on Employment Experience", prepared for the Office of Manpower, Automation and Training; U. S. Department of Labor (1966).

Table 86

Scoring System Used to Rate the Employment History of Each Individual in the Sample

3-year employment score:	No. of Months		Score
- fully employed at highest skill level	______	x 5 =	______
- fully employed in seasonal occupation at highest skill level and did not seek other employment in off season	______	x 4 =	______
- part-time at highest skill level and did not desire full-time employment	______	x 4 =	______
- unemployed and did not desire employment	______	x 4 =	______
- fullyemployed but not at highest skill level	______	x 3 =	______
- fully employed in seasonal occupation at less than highest skill level and did not seek other employment in off season	______	x 2 =	______
- part-time at highest skill level but desired full-time	______	x 2 =	______
- part-time at less than highest skill level; did not desire full-time	______	x 2 =	______
- part-time at less than highest skill level and desired full-time	______	x 1 =	______
- unemployed; desired employment	______	x 0 =	0
Total	36		
GRAND TOTAL			______

Every noncollege respondent was assigned an Occupational Adjustment Score, using this scoring system.

Adjustment to City Living

In discussing the problems a rural migrant is likely to encounter upon moving to the city, the Director of Manpower for the Chicago Urban League stated:

> "In the South, you can virtually stop a person on the street and ask directions, talk to him, ask for help or this kind of thing. In the city, you get an entirely new feeling of cold and indifferent attitudes and suspiciousness on the part of people. It makes for a very difficult time in terms of making friends."

Most rural people, accustomed to the friendliness and openness of their rural neighbors, see city people as being cold and suspicious. One 35-year-old Mississippi woman, a returnee from the North, put it this way:

> "I've been up there to visit, and I don't like the city. It's too fast for me. If you don't know anybody before you go, you never meet anybody. They don't even know their own neighbors, and lock themselves in and lock themselves out."

Large numbers of rural youths leave their homes and move to the city. For these youths, ability to adjust to life in the city is a large part of occupational adjustment. In our study of rural youths in the North Central states we found that many young rural-to-urban migrants, especially males, were unable to adjust to living in the city and returned home to rural communities where jobs were scarce.

The findings of this study with respect to adjustment to the city differ markedly from our findings in the North Central states.

Youthful male and female rural-to-urban migrants from the rural Southeast adjust equally well to the city. Equal proportions of each sex returned to the rural South; equal proportions say they would prefer to return home rather than stay in the city if good jobs were available in their home communities; equal proportions say that they were able to make friends easily in the city.

On the other hand, we find entirely different adjustment patterns between white youths and black youths.

Earlier research by Eldon Smith(105) showed that, of the rural relocatees in Indianapolis, black migrants from Mississippi adjusted much better than whites from southern Kentucky and Tennessee. Smith further noted that because southern white migrants had a propensity to return home after a brief period, employers often regard them as poor employment risks for jobs requiring any substantial training period and consider them inferior workers for even unskilled jobs.

The results of our present study tend to show that black youths do not adjust to the city better than white youths do. However, they are less likely to return home as a result of poor adjustment.

Eighty-seven percent of the white migrants, compared with 79 percent of the black migrants, say they made new friends easily in the city. This difference is not statistically significant, but the direction of the relationship does not support the idea that black youths adjust more readily to the city than white youths do.

The important finding with respect to making new friends in the city is that half of the white youths but only one-tenth of the black youths who did not make new friends easily left the city and moved back to their rural communities (see Table 87). In fact, as shown in Table 88, whether or not black youths return to the rural setting is unrelated to this measure of social adjustment.

Table 87

Congruence Between Not Being Able to Make New Friends Easily in the City and Returning to the Rural Community to Live, by Race

Race	Actually Returned		Totals
	Yes	No	
White	6 (50%)	6 (50%)	12
Black	2 (10%)	18 (90%)	20
Totals	8	24	32

$\chi^2 = 4.44$, df = 1; $p = <.05$

Table 88

Relationship of Making New Friends Easily and Staying in the City, by Race

Made New Friends Easily and Race	Stayed in City		Totals
	Yes	No	
White:			
Yes	69 (83%)	14 (17%)	83
No	6 (50%)	6 (50%)	12
Totals	75	20	95

$\chi^2 = 5.07$, df = 1; $p = <.025$

Made New Friends Easily and Race	Stayed in City		Totals
	Yes	No	
Black:			
Yes	68 (88%)	9 (12%)	77
No	18 (90%)	2 (10%)	20
Totals	86	11	97

$\chi^2 = 0.03$, df = 1; not significant

Among the noncollege youths who moved to the city, blacks are much more likely than whites to say that, if jobs were available there, they would prefer to return to their rural home communities (see Table 89).

Of those who state a preference to return, 57 percent of the white youths, but only 20 percent of the black youths, actually left the city and went back to the rural South (see Table 90).

Despite these measures, which seem to indicate that rural black youths don't adjust to the city very well, only 15 percent of the noncollege black youths who migrated to the city returned to their rural homes. As shown in Table 91, this contrasts with a 41 percent rate of return among their white peers.

In terms of "sticking with" a job in the city, the black youth is a better bet than the white youth. This does not seem to be a matter of better adjustment to the city; rather, they have less to go back to (in terms of jobs at least) in the rural South.

Table 89

Proportion of Young Rural-to-Urban Migrants Who State
That They Would Prefer to Return to Their Home Community
if Good Jobs were Available to Them There, by Race

Race	Prefer to Return	No Stated Preference	Prefer to Stay in City	Totals
White	14 (23%)	28 (46%)	19 (31%)	61
Black	42 (47%)	25 (28%)	22 (25%)	89
Totals	56	53	41	150

$\chi^2 = 9.49$, df = 2; p = <.01

Table 90

Congruence Between Stating a Preference to Return and Actually Returning to the Rural South Among Youthful Rural-to-Urban Migrants, by Race

Race	Actually Returned		Totals
	Yes	No	
White	8 (57%)	6 (43%)	14
Black	8 (20%)	32 (80%)	40
Totals	16	38	54

$\chi^2 = 5.20$, df = 1; $p = <.025$

Table 91

Proportion of Noncollege Migrants Who Stayed in the City, by Race

Race	Stayed in City		Totals
	Yes	No	
Black	56 (85%)	10 (15%)	66
White	24 (59%)	17 (41%)	41
Totals	80	27	107

$\chi^2 = 9.28$, df = 1; $p = <.005$

Black youths who come to the city from the most agricultural parts of the rural South are much less likely to return home than those who come from less agricultural rural areas (see Table 92). Whether white youths stay in the city or return home is unrelated to this factor.

Table 92

Proportion of Black Noncollege Migrants Who Stayed in the City, by Agricultural Employment in Home County

Percent Employed in Agriculture in Home County	Stayed in City	Returned Home	Totals
Low	15 (58%)	11 (42%)	26
Medium	34 (81%)	8 (19%)	42
High	15 (94%)	1 (6%)	16
Totals	64	20	84

$\chi^2 = 8.15$, df = 2; p = <.02

In an earlier section of this report we noted that black youths are more likely than white youths to move to cities where friends or relatives already live. Since black youths are also more likely to stay in the city than white youths, it was thought that the presence of friends and relatives might be the factor that encouraged them to remain. However, when the data were examined, it was found that the relationship was just the opposite of the expected one. Rural migrants (both black and white) who moved to cities where friends or relatives already lived were more likely to return to the rural area than those who moved to cities where they knew no one previously. (Of those who did move where relatives or friends live, 82 percent of blacks and 55 percent of whites stayed; of those who did not, 100 percent of blacks and 61 percent of whites stayed.) This relationship, although consistent, was not statistically significant.

Although blacks who move to a city where friends or relatives live are more likely to get high occupational adjustment scores, the opposite tendency is found for whites. However, neither relationship is significant.

School Factors That Affect Success

Vocational Training

In the North Central study, urban employers tended to discount the value of vocational training given by rural high schools; they stated that the youths did not learn up-to-date skills necessary to compete in modern industry. Whitlock(142) found that in many schools the vocational programs are not training the students to enter the areas in which job opportunities exist. Nor are they being trained in the specific job skills that employers would prefer them to have. Therefore, we tested the following hypothesis:

- Among rural high school graduates who do not attend college, those who have taken a high school vocational course, other than vocational agriculture, have the same Occupational Adjustment Score as graduates who have not taken such a course.

Although in many cases there tends to be a pattern in which those who took a particular vocational course are likely to get a higher occupational adjustment score than those who did not, in most cases the number of students who had taken a course is small and this relationship is not statistically significant. Only among those males, both black and white, who had taken one or more years of a general commercial course does this relationship attain statistical significance (see Table 93 below). The numbers of high school graduates who took Vocational Shop or Industrial Arts is too small to provide reliable determinations of the effects of these courses on occupational adjustment.

Table 93

Relationship of Occupational Adjustment Score and Taking Commercial Courses, for Male High School Graduates Who Did Not Go On To College

Took A Commercial Course	Occupational Adjustment Score		Totals
	Low	High	
Yes	6 (32%)	13 (68%)	19
No	14 (74%)	5 (26%)	19
Totals	20	18	38

$\chi^2 = 6.76$, df = 1; p = <.01

We also hypothesized that:

- Graduates of a rural high school that offers a formal course in occupational familiarization enter a broader range of entry-level jobs than those not exposed to this kind of study unit.

We were unable to test this hypothesis because, of our entire noncollege sample who migrated to cities,only two youths (about 2 percent of those who obtained jobs) entered jobs that are uncommon in the rural community. In contrast, using the same objective rating system for determining whether a job is familiar or unfamiliar to rural residents, we found that about 14 percent of noncollege rural youths in the North Central states who migrated to cities entered unfamiliar occupations.

Size of High School

Although many other school-related factors were included in the analysis, most did not prove to be important influences on occupational adjustment; therefore, they are not discussed in this report. Among the many hypotheses that we tested was the following:

- Among noncollege rural youth, those from smaller rural schools are more likely than those from larger rural schools to enter blue-collar occupations and less likely to enter sales jobs.

This hypothesis was in large part substantiated; males, both black and white, who attended small schools (>200 students in grades 10-12) are likely to enter blue-collar occupations; those who attend small schools are not likely to enter sales occupations (see Tables 94 to 96). This relationship is statistically significant for females and for whites; but only 5 white males, 4 black females and 13 white females entered sales jobs.

Table 94

Proportion of Rural Noncollege Males Who Entered Blue-Collar and White-Collar Jobs, by Size of High School (Grades 10-12)

Size of High School	Entry Job				Totals
	Blue-Collar		White-Collar		
<200 students	21	(95%)	1	(5%)	22
≥200 students	46	(88%)	6	(12%)	52
Totals	67		7		74

$\chi^2 = 5.18$, df = 1; p = <.025

Table 95

Proportion of Rural Noncollege White Youths Who Entered Sales Jobs, by Size of High School

Size of High School	Entry Job in Sales		Totals
	Yes	No	
<200 students	1 (2%)	48 (98%)	49
≥200 students	17 (20%)	69 (80%)	86
Totals	18	117	135

$\chi^2 = 8.49$, df = 1; p = <.005

Table 96

Proportion of Rural Noncollege Females Who Entered Sales Jobs, by Size of High School

Size of High School	Entry Job in Sales		Totals
	Yes	No	
<200 students	0 (0%)	48 (100%)	48
≥200 students	17 (11%)	132 (89%)	149
Totals	17	180	197

$\chi^2 = 4.63$, df = 1; p = <.05

Community Factors Affecting Success

Isolation

In our earlier studies we found that a large proportion of rural youths in the North Central states live in extreme isolation. Over 60 percent of the rural youths that we studied lived more than 85 miles from a city of 100,000 population, and about 70 percent lived more than 30 miles from a city of 10,000 population. One out of five of these youths lived in counties in which there was no public transportation of any kind. About 40 percent lived in counties that had a population density of less than 13 people per square mile.

Our findings in the present study show that this kind of isolation does not exist for most youths in the Southeast. There are more people per square mile; distances to major urban centers tend to be shorter and transportation better than in the rural parts of the North Central states. In the Southeast, only 36 percent of rural youths in our sample live more than 85 miles from a city of 100,000 population, and only about 30 percent live more than 30 miles from a city of 10,000 population. None of the young people live in counties that have fewer than 13 people per square mile, and only 2 percent live in counties that have no form of scheduled public transportation. (See Tables 1 through 3 in the section entitled "Introduction -- An Overview".)

In the North Central states we found that young rural-to-urban migrants from the most isolated counties received lower wages than migrants from the less isolated rural counties; they also tended to be employed more often in a job below their highest skill level or to be employed for shorter periods of time. The migrants from the isolated rural counties did not make as good an adjustment to the city as migrants from less isolated communities. Yet they stated more frequently than the others that they would prefer to remain in the city than return to their rural communities, even if jobs were available to them there.

On the basis of these and other similar findings, the guidelines for the North Central states Rural Youth Program treated all rural youths growing up in extremely isolated communities as "disadvantaged" youths who were eligible for the program. Our findings in the Southeast, however, do not appear to justify this kind of eligibility criterion for a program designed to meet the needs of rural youths in the Southeast.

The present Southeast study shows that:

- Population density of the rural community in which the youth grows up is not an important factor determining his later occupational adjustment if he migrates from that rural area to the city.
- Young rural-to-urban migrants who come from counties that are beyond commuting distance to a city of 100,000 population tend to receive higher occupational scores than those who come from less isolated rural counties (see Table 97).
- Males who migrate from rural counties with a high population density make lower wages on their entry-level job than those males who come from counties with a sparser population, although this is not true of the female rural-to-urban migrants (see Table 98.)

These findings appear to be in direct contrast with our findings in the North Central states. However, it must be remembered that in the North Central states we were studying a degree of isolation which is not found among the communities that we studied in our present sample.

Table 97

Relationship of Occupational Adjustment Scores and Having Grown Up a Certain Distance From a City ≥100,000 Population for Rural Migrants to Cities

Distance from City ≥100,000 Population	Occupational Adjustment Scores of Rural-to-Urban Migrants		Totals
	Low	High	
≤80 miles	63 (60%)	42 (40%)	105
>80 miles	16 (39%)	25 (61%)	41
Totals	79	67	146

$\chi^2 = 5.22$, df = 1; p = <.025

Table 98

Entry Wages of Males and Females, by County Population Density

Population Density of County	Sex	
	Male	Female
Low	$3.11	$1.97
High	$2.33	$1.98

Among noncollege rural youths from the Southeast, nearly everyone (98 percent) enters a job that is already familiar to him from his experience in the rural area. (The corresponding figure in the North Central states is 86 percent.) A large proportion (68 percent) enter blue-collar jobs. Only 23 percent enter a skilled trade; 10 percent, a sales job. About 5 percent obtain entry jobs that require heavy physical labor.

There is an interesting relationship between obtaining a blue-collar job and distance of the youth's home community from a major urban center. Among those who remain in their rural communities, regardless of how far that community is from a major urban center, about 80 percent of the noncollege youths enter blue-collar jobs. In contrast, among those noncollege youths who leave their rural communities and move to the city, only 46 percent of those from communities further than 80 miles from a major urban center enter blue-collar occupations. As Table 99 shows, 59 percent of those who are from communities that are 55 to 80 miles from a major urban center and 84 percent who are from communities within 55 miles of an urban center enter blue-collar jobs.

Only 1 black male and 2 white males entered white-collar jobs, so that an analysis of results by race and sex could be done only for females. The results for black female migrants are shown in Table 100. Those who grew up close to a major city tend to enter blue-collar jobs; those who grew up further away, to enter white-collar jobs. The same pattern occurs among white females, but the relationship is not statistically significant.

Table 99

Proportion Who Entered Blue- and White-Collar Jobs, by Distance of County Seat From a City of Over 100,000 Population, Among Those Who Migrated and Did Not Migrate to a City

Distance from City >100,000 Population	Entry Job is:		Totals
	Blue-collar	White-collar	
Migrants:			
<55 mi.	57 (84%)	11 (16%)	68
55-80 mi.	16 (59%)	11 (41%)	27
>80 mi.	17 (46%)	20 (54%)	37
Totals	90	42	132
	$\chi^2 = 17.09$, df = 2; p = <.001		
Nonmigrants:			
<55 mi.	49 (80%)	12 (20%)	61
55-80 mi.	37 (82%)	8 (18%)	45
>80 mi.	38 (76%)	12 (24%)	50
Totals	124	32	156

$\chi^2 = 0.61$, df = 2; p = not significant

Table 100

Proportion of Black Female Migrants Who Entered Blue- and White-Collar Jobs, by Distance from City Over 100,000 Population

Distance from City ≥100,000 Population	Entry Job is:		Totals
	Blue-collar	White-collar	
<55 mi.	24 (86%)	5 (14%)	29
55-80 mi.	4 (67%)	2 (33%)	6
>80 mi.	7 (41%)	10 (59%)	17
Totals	35	17	52

$\chi^2 = 8.42$, df = 2; p = <.02

Part-time Work

In the North Central states study one finding was of special importance to the planning of the ideal rural youth program for that region: youths who had held part-time jobs during their high school years in the rural community did not show any measurable beneficial effects of this experience in terms of entry level wages or employment score when compared with their peers who had not held part-time jobs. In view of the fact that the part-time job did not serve any purpose in terms of keeping young people in school (the rural dropout rate in the North Central states is extremely low) it was concluded that a work program for rural youths would not, in itself, be effective in preparing them for either urban or rural occupations. A work experience component was included in the North Central states rural youth program, but only as a vehicle for providing occupational counseling, occupational familiarization, familiarization with city living, and other needed services, while gaining acceptance of the rural leaders in that region, who are primarily work oriented.

Because of these findings in our previous study, we tested the following hypothesis in the present study:

- There will be no relationship between having part-time work while in high school and either occupational adjustment score or entry level wage obtained following graduation.

This hypothesis was substantiated. In general, there is no relationship between having had a part-time job while in high school and occupational adjustment score. This is true even when we control for race and sex. Those who had part-time work tend to get slightly higher entry level wages; but this difference is not large enough to be significant.

In the North Central states a hypothesis was raised which predicted a positive relationship between part-time employment and obtaining a full-time urban job. In that study, some employers said that they believed that part-time farm employment taught a rural youth the value of hard work and the nature of work in general. However, several employers in Chicago and Atlanta thought that the seasonal nature of farm work and the consequent sporadic work records of these rural youths might look strange to the average urban employer. As a man from the Chicago Employment Service suggested:

> "In the South, a man works on a job in the summer, and he works for one farmer and then another farmer, and there's no prejudice against his having had 30 jobs. In other words, what you want out of a man, from their point of view, is a day's work. You can quit at 2 o'clock in the afternoon and ... you chop that number of cords of wood, and you're being paid by the hour; you're not being paid for your lifetime. In the city, they want to know, 'Gee, how do we know that you're going to stay'."

We also find no significant statistical relationship between part-time farm work and occupational adjustment, even when we control for dropping out, race and sex. Whether or not youths had worked part-time on a farm during high school made no difference in whether they got a high or low occupational adjustment score. Again, there is no significant difference in entry level wages between those who had worked and those who had not.

In view of the fact that there is no other method of providing income supplements that will be as acceptable to the rural leadership as the provision of a part-time job, the part time work or "work experience" component becomes a desirable part of a rural youth program in the Southeast. The reason, however, is not the one usually given -- to prepare youths for the world of work -- but rather to prevent them from dropping out of school because of lack of financial help. This approach is discussed in more detail under the section entitled "Dropout Prevention -- Income Supplements".

Family and Personal Variables

Family Income

Existing Federal programs for youth are based largely on serving those from financially disadvantaged families. It becomes especially important, therefore, to understand exactly what can be expected to result from these programs. That is, we should know what the implications are of growing up in poverty. We have shown in an earlier part of this report that one such implication is an increased probability of dropping out of school. On this basis, if a program for poor youths is successful in overcoming the effects of poverty, it would be expected to reduce the school dropout rate. This section of the report deals with the implication that growing up in poverty has on later employment experience.

In our North Central states study we found that coming from a poverty-level family did not affect a noncollege youth's later occupational adjustment, whereas graduating from a small school or coming from a very isolated community did. The implications of these findings were: 1) if the youth program was to be aimed at poor youths only, then facilitation of later employment was not a very meaningful criterion because it was unrelated to the problems of this group; 2) if the youth program was to be aimed at poor youths only, then immediate gratification of essential needs, income redistribution, prevention of school dropouts (for a very small group), and facilitation of entry into vocational school or college following graduation from high school (for a larger group) were achievable goals related to the problems of this group; and 3) if facilitation of later employment for those youths who would be at a disadvantage in the labor market was to be a goal of the programs, then youths from poor families should not be any more eligible for the program than other youths -- the definition of "disadvantaged" would have to be changed.

This rather lengthy discussion of the issue seems justified because it is so basic to the concept of "helping" youths by means of any structured program.

In the present study in the Southeast we also found no relationship between family income, as measured in dollars, and later occupational adjustment. And only among white nonmigrants was there a significant relationship between family income, as measured by Purchasing Power Index level, and occupational adjustment. Among this group, 47 percent of those in the lower 2 levels got low occupational adjustment scores; only 26 percent of those in the higher 2 levels got low occupational adjustment scores (see Table 101).

Table 101

Proportion of White Rural Nonmigrants Who Got Low Occupational Adjustment Scores, by Purchasing Power Index Level

Purchasing Power Index Level	Occupational Adjustment Score		Totals
	Low	High	
1 + 2	26 (47%)	29 (53%)	55
3 + 4	10 (26%)	29 (74%)	39
Totals	36	58	94

$\chi^2 = 4.52$, df = 1; $p = <.05$

It was expected that class and family ties would work against lower-class whites who tried to obtain "prestige" types of jobs in the rural areas. As an elementary school principal noted:

> "In many instances, the employers are not going to hire unless they know something about the youths or their parents; about where they live, and about how they came up. In many instances, the youths have to contact the foreman, and he would have to know the person seeking employment or the parent before he would hire the youth."

Therefore, the following hypothesis was tested:

- Rural nonmigrants from low-income families report that they have had to take lower-paying, less-attractive jobs than they were qualified for.

This hypothesis was not substantiated. When controlled for race, there is no difference in the proportions of noncollege youths from poor families and from more affluent families who say they had to take lower-paying jobs than those for which they believed they are qualified (28 percent of low-income whites, 32 percent of high-income whites; 64 percent of low-income blacks and 60 percent of high-income blacks).

A commonly held opinion is that youths, particularly black youths, leave the rural South because better-paying, higher-status jobs are available to them in the cities (see the Section on "Factors Affecting Outmigration"). Among black youths who stayed in their home communities, 66 percent of those from low-income families and 66 percent of those from high-income families report that they had to take lower-paying, less-attractive jobs than they are qualified for. Among black youths who migrated, the percentages were 63 percent of those from low-income and 55 percent from higher-income families -- not a significant difference.

These findings do not support the notion that poverty, in itself, leads to a later disadvantage in the labor market among youths growing up in the rural Southeast. That being black is a disadvantage in the labor market is obvious. This will be discussed in the next section of this report.

Race

Black noncollege youths obtain lower occupational adjustment scores than their white peers. The differences are shown in Table 102 and are statistically significant for females but not for males.

Table 102

The Relationship Between Race and Occupational Adjustment Scores Among Noncollege Rural Youths

Race and Sex	Occupational Adjustment Scores		Totals
	1-2	3-4	
Female:			
White	50 (44%)	63 (56%)	113
Black	79 (62%)	48 (38%)	127
Totals	129	111	240

$\chi^2 = 7.76$, df = 1; p = <.01

Race and Sex	1-2	3-4	Totals
Male:			
White	18 (42%)	25 (58%)	43
Black	28 (56%)	22 (44%)	50
Totals	46	47	93

$\chi^2 = 1.85$, df = 1; p = not significant

When type of entry job of white and black rural youth, both migrants and nonmigrants, is examined, it is evident that blacks are more likely than whites to enter blue-collar jobs, slightly less likely to enter the skilled trades, and much less likely to enter white-collar and sales occupations. These relationships are significant for migrants and nonmigrants who enter white- or blue-collar jobs, for migrants who enter sales jobs and for nonmigrant males who enter skilled trades (see Tables 103 through 105).

Table 103

Proportion Who Entered Blue- and White-Collar Jobs, by Race and Migration Status

Migration Status and Race	Entry Job is:		Totals
	Blue-collar	White-collar	
Migrants:			
White	30 (56%)	24 (44%)	54
Black	60 (77%)	18 (23%)	78
Totals	90	42	132

$\chi^2 = 6.72$, df = 1; p = <.01

Nonmigrants:			
White	56 (68%)	27 (32%)	83
Black	68 (92%)	6 (8%)	74
Totals	124	33	157

$\chi^2 = 14.06$, df = 1; p = <.001

Table 104

Proportion of Migrants Who Entered Sales Jobs, by Race

Race	Entered Sales Job		Totals
	Yes	No	
White	10 (18%)	46 (82%)	56
Black	3 (4%)	75 (96%)	78
Totals	13	121	134

$\chi^2 = 7.30$, df = 1; p = <.01

Table 105

Proportion of Nonmigrant Males Who Entered Skilled Trades, by Race

Race	Entered Skilled Trade		Totals
	Yes	No	
White	17 (59%)	12 (41%)	29
Black	6 (30%)	14 (60%)	20
Totals	23	26	49

$\chi^2 = 3.89$, df = 1; $p = <.05$

Far more black than white noncollege youths report that they had to take lower-paying, less-attractive jobs than they were qualified for (see Table 106).

Table 106

Proportion of Black and of White Rural Noncollege Youths Who Report Having to Take Lower-Paying, Less-Attractive Jobs Than They Were Qualified For

Race	Had to Take Poorer Jobs		Totals
	Yes	No	
Female:			
White	27 (26%)	76 (74%)	103
Black	67 (55%)	55 (45%)	122
Totals	94	131	225
$\chi^2 = 18.92$, df = 1; $p = <.001$			
Male:			
White	18 (45%)	22 (55%)	40
Black	41 (79%)	11 (21%)	52
Totals	59	33	92

$\chi^2 = 11.26$, df = 1; $p = <.001$

Rogers, et al.(98), in their study of dropout employment in two rural North Carolina counties, found that most were employed in the unskilled and semiskilled categories. In fact, 12 percent of the firms surveyed in that study had job positions in the skilled category, yet less than 1 percent hired dropouts for these positions. Only one youth in the study was found to be working in a skilled position; 14 were working at clerical jobs, 70 were in semiskilled and unskilled positions and 31 youths were unemployed.

In the present study, black rural youths who drop out of school tend to get lower occupational adjustment scores than white rural dropouts, but this difference is significant only for rural nonmigrants. In this latter group, 59 percent of black but only 21 percent of white dropouts got a low occupational adjustment score (see Table 107).

Table 107

Proportion of Rural Nonmigrants Who Got Low Occupational Adjustment Scores, by Race (School Dropouts Only)

Race	Occupational Adjustment Score				Totals
	Low		High		
Black	16	(59%)	11	(41%)	27
White	5	(21%)	19	(79%)	24
Totals	21		30		51

$\chi^2 = 7.74$, df = 1; p = <.01

Related information about racial discrimination in hiring is reported in an earlier section of this report on the factors affecting outmigration from the rural Southeast.

Knowledge About Urban Jobs

It was not possible, from the individual data gathered in this study, to determine how knowledgeable rural youths are about the kinds of jobs that are available in the city. However, the urban employers who were interviewed quite consistently mentioned problems that rural youths have because of their lack of knowledge about job requirements and office procedures.

According to the On-the-Job Training Director of the Atlanta Urban League, many rural youths are not familiar with the urban job market and have unrealistic goals for their first job:

> "They'll come in and they'll say, 'I want anything that you have open', or 'I want a counselor job', or 'I want to work in advertising or radio' -- all of the glamorous jobs. (Even the people with college degrees do this.) It's so frustrating, and I've spoken of it to some of the colleges many times in trying to implant the idea that if you want to go into industry you don't take education, history and English. You find out about the top jobs that are available in industry, and then start training for them. You will find in the liberal arts colleges here, most people take sociology, psychology, English, history, or education, but they don't want to go into that. They'll take sociology and expect to [enter] a professional social work job. And this is not what is happening. Here in Atlanta ... you have MSW's [persons who hold Master's degree in Social Work] ... who are looking, too. So, it is a problem -- and then they say, 'Well, I'll do anything'. Most of our jobs here are clerical. If they can't type, they're cut out of the clerical field, because .... all of the clerical jobs now are coupled with typing."

Black youths in particular faced employment problems in Atlanta:

> "You might be advertising for a biochemistry degree, and all they hear is a job is available. And they start ringing that phone, and it rings and rings. All I hear is, 'What kind of job is that that you've got?' So many of the black people we get who just moved to Atlanta .... are not aware of the crucial problems concerning employment when they get here, and it's so easy for them to just become discouraged."

Many young people are dismayed when they learn about the requirements of a particular job. A man working for the Labor Department Employment Service in Atlanta indicated:

> "Oftentimes you get a young man who wants to get into a sales job, and the only knowledge he has of a sales job is the young man at the local department store. He saw him in a shirt and tie all day, and he had a clean job, and apparently he had a good income, so he thought he wanted to get into sales. When we talked to him about working nights and oftentimes working Sundays in a department store ... this was news to him and often discouraged him. Knowledge of employer requirements in Atlanta, attendance, grooming, these sorts of things, are news to them, is frightening, and is a problem."

Participation in Federal Manpower Programs

The programs now being offered to rural youth -- MDTA, NYC, Job Corps -- are generally labeled "poverty programs" or very often called "federal give-away programs" by rural residents.

In the North Central states study it was found that many young people did not want to take part in the NYC program because it was a "poverty" program. The same type of situation occurs in the Southeast among white youths. An NYC Director from a North Carolina county stated:

> "I think the white is very reluctant to identify with poverty. This is not only true for the Neighborhood Youth Corps program but is true in the Tri-County Program, it is true in the Manpower Administration Program, and all your anti-poverty programs throughout this area. Everyone is trying to recruit more whites -- with very little success."

In the Southeast, the presence of many black participants in federally sponsored manpower programs may lead to a decrease in the number of white youths that are willing to take part in them. An NYC Director in a small city in South Carolina said:

> "There is no race barrier, and the only thing white youths have to do is apply. But other kids at school see the NYC youths with the blacks, and nobody wants to be associated with the colored. Poor and black are synonymous. I understand that in one school district, 30 or 40 white youths received NYC applications, and some of them brought them back with messages from their parents that they didn't want them to work here. A lot of them think that this is just for black kids."

According to a study conducted in North Carolina (100), more black than white rural youths are knowledgeable about these programs and participate in them.

With this information in mind, the following hypothesis about participation in federal manpower programs was tested:

- More black than white youths report that they are familiar with and took part in federally sponsored programs such as Job Corps, MDTA, or NYC.

The data show that about four times as many black youths as white youths say they were enrolled in one or more federally sponsored programs. Table 108 shows the numbers who participated in each of the three programs.

The numbers in Table 108 are somewhat deceptive, however. Sixty black youths (21 percent of the black sample) and 17 white youths (5 percent of the white sample) were enrolled. Of the 60 black youths, 11 were enrolled in two of the three programs; none of the 17 white youths were enrolled in two programs.

A more detailed breakdown shows that 27 percent of the black males, 24 percent of the black females, 8 percent of the white females and none of the white males were enrolled in one or more of these programs (see Table 109). These findings are in line with the family income disparity between black and white families noted in an earlier section of this report.

An unexpected finding was that, although these programs enroll only low-income youths (and college attendance was found to be highly related to income), about equal proportions of those who attended college and those who did not attend college had been enrolled in these programs. The proportion of ex-enrollees who attended college was about 33 percent for black youths and 47 percent for white youths -- much higher than other youths from families with similar incomes. Two explanations are equally plausible; the income from the programs is saved for further education or program slots are filled selectively with those low-income youths who are "college material".

Table 108

Proportion Who Took Part in Three Federally Sponsored Programs, by Race

Race	Took Part in Manpower Development Training Program		Totals
	Yes	No	
White	4 (1%)	272 (99%)	276
Black	16 (7%)	225 (93%)	241
Totals	20	497	517

$\chi^2 = 9.32$, df = 1; p = <.005

Race	Took Part in NYC Program		Totals
	Yes	No	
White	11 (4%)	265 (96%)	276
Black	47 (19%)	194 (81%)	241
Totals	58	459	517

$\chi^2 = 31.10$, df = 1; p = <.001

Race	Took Part in Job Corps		Totals
	Yes	No	
White	2 (1%)	274 (99%)	276
Black	8 (3%)	233 (97%)	241
Totals	10	507	517

$\chi^2 = 4.57$, df = 1; p = <.05

Table 109

Proportion of Youths Enrolled in
One or More Federal Programs, by Race

Race	Enrolled		Not Enrolled	
Black	60	(21%)	230	(79%)
White	17	(5%)	311	(95%)

$\chi^2 = 33.93$, df = 1; $p = <.001$

The disproportionate number of black youths who participated in these programs assumes even more significance when we consider that black youths are more likely than whites to say that the programs were not offered in their communities or that they wanted to take part but didn't (see Table 110).

Table 110

Proportion Who Say They Did Not Take Part Because These
Programs Were Not Available in Their Communities, by Race

Race	Wanted to Take Part But Couldn't Because Programs Not Available			
	No		Yes	
White	306	(80%)	22	(7%)
Black	216	(74%)	74	(26%)

$\chi^2 = 41.50$, df = 1; $p = <.001$

IMPLICATIONS

In many respects, the problems faced by a rural youth growing up in the Southeast are like those facing a rural youth growing up in the North Central states. Both attend schools that do not provide the breadth of curriculum or services that are provided in urban schools. The chances are good that both attend a school in which no one, either trained or untrained, is assigned to counseling duties. Both lack familiarity with urban jobs and tend to enter the kinds of jobs with which they are familiar in the rural setting. Both tend to adjust poorly to life in the large cities to which they are likely to migrate.

Thus, in both settings there is a clear need for an in-school program to supplement a weak rural educational system, rather than relying upon the schools for leadership in the rural youth program. In both regions, however, the range of services varies so markedly that youths coming from different communities require different kinds of services from outside the community. The ideal project must allow for individualized approaches to the problems of individuals and individual communities.

This can best be achieved by providing a wide range of components from which the project director can choose those components that fill the gaps in available services. The in-school program should make available vocational training, occupational familiarization, counseling, office skills courses, and special education in those communities where these aspects of education are not provided by the schools. An individual training plan should be developed for each in-school enrollee. The kinds of components that would be made available to the enrollee through the program would be dependent upon the kinds of services already being provided by other local institutions, including the schools.

Inadequacies in local education should be reason for eligibility for the in-school program. Thus, the concept of "disadvantaged" would be broadened to include those rural youths who attend a school in which the total enrollment in grades 10, 11, and 12 is less than 100 (an average of 33.3 or less per class) or who attend a school which has inadequate job preparation for its students who are not going to college (no school counselor -- either trained or untrained -- no job familiarization, lack of relevant vocational courses, etc.). These nonpoverty "disadvantaged" enrollees would not be paid for participating in the program, nor would they be placed in work experience slots.

Although outmigration from the rural community is not as extensive as in the North Central states, a significant proportion of rural youths, particularly black youths, do move to the city. This pattern should be recognized, and one of the objectives of any rural youth program in the Southeast should be to aid rural youths in making the transition from rural to urban living if that is their choice. Occupational familiarization and occupational counseling should be aimed at both urban and rural jobs. A component should be provided to familiarize the enrollee with urban living.

A student should not have to drop out of school to obtain meaningful vocational training. Skill training should be a program component that can be utilized in rural communities that cannot provide such training in the school. The training should result in the development of marketable skills that are not tied to special local employment conditions.

It is neither necessary nor desirable that every enrollee be engaged in a work experience situation. The failure to show any significant relationship between part-time work while in high school and either finding a job after high school or success on the job implies a need to reassess the value of this program component. The primary role of work experience in an in-school program for rural youths in the Southeast should be as a mechanism to provide income supplements; in an in-school program the primary purpose of these supplements should be to provide enough money to prevent youths from dropping out of school for lack of clothing, fees, or other minor expenses.

The number of work experience slots in public settings is very limited in rural areas. Priority for available work experience slots should be given to those youths from families with the very lowest incomes. The lack of an available work experience slot should not limit enrollment in the other nonpaid components of the program, however. Every effort should be made to increase the number of work experience slots available for low-income youths in the in-school program. Current policies should be changed to allow a limited number of work experience slots in private settings, particularly if the work experience can be shown to be directly relevant to the enrollee's occupational goals.

Because of the large number of dropouts that occur at the completion of the 8th grade, the rural youth in-school program should cover all eighth-graders, by providing a limited work experience component and an introduction to the nonacademic offerings, particularly the occupation-related courses and services of their local high school. The work experience component for this age group would require a change in current policies.

In part, the in-school program would be an educational program, in that it would provide many services normally provided by an urban school system. The program would have two major objectives: to prevent school dropouts, and to prepare those who do not drop out to compete more effectively with their urban peers after they complete high school, either in the labor market or in advanced education. In view of the well-established relationship between lack of formal education and unemployment, these two objectives really are reduced to one; the objective is the same as that of providing skill training to the school dropout -- to eventually improve the enrollee's competitive position in the labor market. It does not make sense, then, to distinguish between an "educational" program for in-school trainees and a "manpower training" program for out-of-school enrollees.

In the North Central states, the value of an out-of-school program for rural youths is doubtful. Few drop out of school, and many of those who do not drop out leave for the city immediately. In an experimental project in Nebraska, Iowa and Minnesota that covers a rural area as large as southern New England, we have located so few dropouts who are not employed that an economical out-of-school project is not feasible. This is not the case in the rural Southeast. There are more dropouts, and fewer of the dropouts leave their rural communities to live elsewhere.

Because of the very strong relationship in the Southeast between poverty and dropping out of school, it should not be assumed that the school dropout has less ability than his peers who did not drop out.

First priority for the overall program should be given to preventing school dropouts; second priority should be given to returning the dropouts to school. If these efforts fail, it is essential to have an out-of-school program that emphasizes skill training as preparation for an entry level job. The present NYC-II program, with minor modification, seems appropriate. The modification should be in the direction or emphasis, not in the content of the program. It should be recognized that the present high dropout rate from schools in the rural parts of the Southeast is not part of a nationwide rural trend. It seems doubtful that any out-of-school program can make the rural dropout from a Southern school competitive with the rural high school graduate from the North when they both move to the same city. The out-of-school enrollee should be made aware of this fact. Every effort should be made to "graduate" him back into the formal educational system rather than into the labor force.

If the out-of-school program and the in-school program are properly coordinated, much might be achieved toward this end. The kind of in-school program outlined above has the possibility of enriching the offerings of the rural school so they will be attractive to the dropout. If the out-of-school enrollee left school for lack of money, an in-school work experience slot can be arranged. The school dropout should be made aware that with a GED certificate he can "skip" returning to high school and go immediately into college or vocational/technical school if he has the ability. The GED should be given more emphasis than at present.

This type of overall program is outlined in much more detail in a separate report entitled "Guidelines for an Experimental Rural Youth Program for the Southeastern States".

APPENDIX A

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APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRES

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1. How old were you on your last birthday? _____ years.
2. Sex: ☐ male ☐ female
3. Marital status: ☐ single ☐ married ☐ separated ☐ widowed ☐ divorced
4. How many children do you have? _____
5. To what race do you belong: ☐ white ☐ Negro ☐ American Indian ☐ Oriental
   (IF WHITE) Are you Spanish-American? ☐ yes ☐ no
6. What is your religion? ☐ Protestant ☐ Catholic ☐ Jewish ☐ Moslem ☐ None
7. Since June of 1964, have you been on active duty with the armed forces? ☐ yes ☐ no
8. Since June of 1964, how many weeks have you been hospitalized or totally bedridden?
   _____ weeks.

NOTE: QUESTIONS 9 THROUGH 14 CONCERN YOUR LIFE UP TO JUNE 1968.

9. Where did you live during most of your childhood?

☐ On a farm
☐ In the country but not on a farm
☐ In a city (over 5000 people)
☐ On a government installation
☐ In a town (fewer than 5000 people)
☐ On a reservation
☐ Other _______________ (write in)

10. We are interested in your spare-time activities during the years 1964 through 1968. In the table below:

Write "0" after each activity that you did not do at all.
Write "1" after each activity that you did sometimes but not often.
Write "2" after each activity in which you were very active.

ACTIVITY	RATING (0,1 or 2)	Check whether you usually did this alone or with friends	
Attending movies	___	☐ alone	☐ with friends
Attending a dance or social event	___	☐ alone	☐ with friends
Hunting	___	☐ alone	☐ with friends
Fishing	___	☐ alone	☐ with friends
Reading	___	☐ alone	☐ with friends
Listening to music	___	☐ alone	☐ with friends
Playing musical instrument	___	☐ alone	☐ with friends
Bowling, golfing, skiing, hiking, tennis or other non-team sports	___	☐ alone	☐ with friends
Baseball, football, basketball or other team sports (not associated with school)	___		
Watching TV	___	☐ alone	☐ with friends
"Bull Sessions" with friends	___		
Church group or other social clubs	___	☐ alone	☐ with friends
Riding around in cars	___	☐ alone	☐ with friends
Constructive hobbies (repairing cars, sewing, woodworking, art, cooking, etc.)	___	☐ alone	☐ with friends
Collecting hobbies (stamps, coins, butterflies, etc.)	___	☐ alone	☐ with friends
Other (list) ______	___	☐ alone	☐ with friends
______	___	☐ alone	☐ with friends
______	___	☐ alone	☐ with friends

11. Between 1964 and 1968, did your family own a television set? ☐ yes ☐ no
12. Between 1964 and 1968, on the average how many hours each week did you watch TV?
    _____ hours
13. Between 1964 and 1968 did you regularly read a "big city" newspaper or weekly news magazine? ☐ yes ☐ no
14. Between the ages of 5 and 12 did you ever live in a city for more than one year?
    ☐ yes ☐ no
    (IF YES) What city? _______________ (city) _______________ (state)

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15. Between 1964 and 1968 did you visit any large city (over 100,000 population) for more than one day? ☐ yes ☐ no

(IF YES) List the cities you visited.

City	State

16. During the years 1964-1968 did you have any close friends or relatives who lived in a large city? ☐ yes ☐ no

17. Between 1964 and 1968, were you a member of any organized group or club that was located in a big city and met at least once a month? ☐ yes ☐ no

(IF YES) In what city? ______________ (city) ______________ (state)

18. Between 1964 and 1968 did you make shopping trips, on a regular basis, to a city of over 20,000 population? ☐ yes ☐ no

(IF YES) To what city? ______________ (city) ______________ (state)

About how often? ☐ less than once a month ☐ about once a month

☐ 2 to 4 times a month ☐ one or more times a week

19. Between 1964 and 1968 what did your father do for a living? (If he had more than one job, list only the major one.) Please tell us what kind of work he did, not who he worked for.

______________________________ (write in)

20. Please circle the last grade of school that your father completed.

Grade School:	High School:	College:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	9 10 11 12	1 2 3 4 more

21. Please circle the last grade of school that you completed. If you are still going to school, please circle your present grade.

Grade School:	High School:	College:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	9 10 11 12	1 2 3 4 more

22. What high school(s) did you attend? (Use Parts A through D, as needed.)

☐ did not attend high school (Skip to Question 30)

A. Went to ______________ (name of school) high school in ______________ (town), ______________ (state)

from ______________ (mo/yr) to ______________ (mo/yr).

B. Went to ______________ (name of school) high school in ______________ (town) ______________ (state)

from ______________ (mo/yr) to ______________ (mo/yr).

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C. Went to ______________ high school in ______________ ______________
(name of school) (town) (state)

from ______________ to ______________.
(month) (year)

D. Went to ______________ high school in ______________ ______________
(name of school) (town) (state)

from ______________ to ______________.
(month) (year)

23. What organized school activities did you take part in during high school? (Check one box after each activity.)

SCHOOL ACTIVITY	Did not participate	Irregular participation (not very active)	Regularly participated (active)	Held leadership position
School plays	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sports (associated with school)	☐	☐	☐	☐
Music (band or choir)	☐	☐	☐	☐
Speech or debate	☐	☐	☐	☐
School government	☐	☐	☐	☐
School newspaper	☐	☐	☐	☐
FFA or FHA	☐	☐	☐	☐
Campfire Girls, Boy Scouts or Girl Scouts, or similar group	☐	☐	☐	☐
4-H	☐	☐	☐	☐
Other (list) ______________	☐	☐	☐	☐
______________	☐	☐	☐	☐
______________	☐	☐	☐	☐

24. Did you have transportation for these kinds of after-school activities?

☐ I did not need transportation (lived near school).

☐ I needed transportation to participate in these activities, but had none.

☐ I had transportation for some after-school activities.

☐ I had transportation for all after-school activities.

25. Did you take any vocational courses (courses meant to prepare you for a specific kind of job) in high school? ☐ yes ☐ no

b. Generally, did your parents feel that you should go to college?

☐ Both parents ☐ Only my mother ☐ Only my father ☐ Neither parent

26. Have you heard of or been involved in any of the following federally sponsored training programs?

	Know About	Took Part In
The Manpower Development & Training Program	☐	☐
The Neighborhood Youth Corps	☐	☐
The Job Corps Program	☐	☐

27. Did you want to take part in these programs but didn't for some reason?

☐ yes ☐ no

(If yes, why?)

☐ Our family income was too high

☐ The programs were not offered in my area

☐ The programs were for minority group members only

☐ I didn't want to take part in a minority group program

☐ I didn't want to take part in a poverty program

☐ Other ______________
(write in)

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28. Did you leave high school before graduating?

☐ yes (answer parts A, B and C below)

☐ no (go on to Question 29)

A. Why did you leave school? (Check the most important reason.)

☐ high school classes were boring

☐ high school courses were too hard

☐ did not have good enough clothes to wear

☐ did not have enough money to pay the school fees

☐ had to help support my family

☐ pregnancy

☐ other ______________________________
(write in)

____

B. Would you have stayed in school if financial help had been given to you?

☐ yes ☐ no

C. Would you have stayed in school if the school had had a counselor with whom you could have talked about your problems?

☐ yes ☐ no

29. Did you work part-time for pay while you were in high school?

☐ yes ☐ no (Go on to Question 30)

(IF YES) Please fill in the following table; check to be sure that the information is correct for each year.

NOTE: This table covers three kinds of work. Fill in the answers for each kind.	Sept 1964 to Aug 1965	Sept 1965 to Aug 1966	Sept 1966 to Aug 1967	Sept 1967 to Aug 1968
(1) Farm work:				
a. Number of months employed during school year (write in)	____	____	____	____
b. Number of months employed during summer vacation (write in)	____	____	____	____
c. If not employed on the farm, did you try to get farm work?	☐ yes ☐ no	☐ yes ☐ no	☐ yes ☐ no	☐ yes ☐ no
(2) Nonfarm work (in town of less than 5000 population):				
a. Number of months employed during school year (write in)	____	____	____	____
b. Number of months employed during summer vacation (write in)	____	____	____	____
c. If not employed in town, did you try to get work there?	☐ yes ☐ no	☐ yes ☐ no	☐ yes ☐ no	☐ yes ☐ no
(3) Nonfarm work (in city of over 5000 population):				
a. Number of months employed during school year (write in)	____	____	____	____
b. Number of months employed during summer vacation (write in)	____	____	____	____
c. If not employed in a city, did you try to get work there?	☐ yes ☐ no	☐ yes ☐ no	☐ yes ☐ no	☐ yes ☐ no

NOTE: QUESTIONS 30, 31, AND 32 WILL BE USED TO DETERMINE THE MEANING OF CASH INCOME LEVEL IN DIFFERENT PARTS OF THE COUNTRY. (YOUR ANSWERS WILL BE TREATED AS CONFIDENTIAL INFORMATION AND NORTH STAR WILL NOT RELEASE THESE ANSWERS TO ANYONE.)

30. Between 1964 and 1968, what was your family's estimated TOTAL yearly income (from all sources)?

☐ less than $2,000

☐ $2,000 - $2,999

☐ $3,000 - $4,999

☐ $5,000 - $7,499

☐ $7,500 - $9,999

☐ $10,000 - $15,000

☐ over $15,000

31. How many people were supported by this income? ____

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2. [illegible]
   - [illegible]
   - [illegible]
   - [illegible]
   - [illegible]

NOTE: Questions 3 through 5 [illegible] 1965.

3) Since [illegible] of 1965, what is the most highly skilled work that you have performed for a period of six months or more?

____
(job title)

When did you do this work? From ______________ to ______________
(month/yr) (month/yr)

For whom were you working? ______________________________
(company)

Address: ______________________________
(street)

______________ ______________
(city) (state)

What kind of business or industry was this?

____

What duties did you have on this job?

____

____

____

____

____

4. Employment history (please account for all periods of employment and unemployment from the present back to [illegible] of 1965). Use sections A through E below, as needed.

A. Present work status

From ______________ to present
(date)

(1) I am ☐ unemployed
☐ employed part time
☐ employed full time

Are you looking for full-time work?
☐ yes ☐ no

(2) If you are employed full- or part-time:

Employed by: ______________________________
(company)

Address: ______________________________
(street)

______________ ______________
(city) (state)

Job title: ______________________________

What duties do you have on this job? ______________________________

____

____

Rate of pay (or net income if self-employed): $______ per hour week month
(circle one)

(3) About how many employers did you contact before you found this job?

______ employers

(4) Is your present job the type of job you want? ☐ yes ☐ no

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[illegible]

From ______________ to ______________
(month) (month)

(1) I was ☐ unemployed } were you looking for full-time work?
☐ employed part-time } ☐ yes ☐ no
☐ employed full-time

(2) If you were employed full- or part-time:

Employed by: ________________________________
(company)

Address: ________________________________
(street)

________________________ ________________________
(city) (state)

Job title: ________________________________

What duties did you have on this job? ________________________________

____

____

Rate of pay (or net income if self-employed): $__________ per hour week month
(circle one)

(3) About how many employers did you contact before you found this job?
__________ employers

[illegible]

From ______________ to ______________
(month) (month)

(1) I was ☐ unemployed } were you looking for full-time work?
☐ employed part-time } ☐ yes ☐ no
☐ employed full-time

(2) If you were employed full- or part-time:

Employed by: ________________________________
(company)

Address: ________________________________
(street)

________________________ ________________________
(city) (state)

Job title: ________________________________

What duties did you have on this job? ________________________________

____

____

Rate of pay (or net income if self-employed): $__________ per hour week month
(circle one)

(3) About how many employers did you contact before you found this job?
__________ employers

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a. Previous work history:

From ______________ to ______________
(mo/yr) (mo/yr)

(1) I was: ☐ unemployed } were you looking for full-time work?
☐ employed part-time } ☐ yes ☐ no
☐ employed full-time

(2) If you were employed full- or part-time:

Employed by: ______________________________
(company)

Address: ______________________________
(street)

______________________ ______________________
(city) (state)

Job title: ______________________________

What duties did you have on this job? ______________________________

____

____

Rate of pay (or net income if self-employed): $________ per hour week month
(circle one)

(3) About how many employers did you contact before you found this job?

________ employers

b. Previous work history:

From ______________ to ______________
(mo/yr) (mo/yr)

(1) I was: ☐ unemployed } were you looking for full-time work?
☐ employed part-time } ☐ yes ☐ no
☐ employed full-time

(2) If you were employed full- or part-time:

Employed by: ______________________________
(company)

Address: ______________________________
(street)

______________________ ______________________
(city) (state)

Job title: ______________________________

What duties did you have on this job? ______________________________

____

____

Rate of pay (or net income if self-employed): $________ per hour week month
(circle one)

(3) About how many employers did you contact before you found this job?

________ employers

If you have had a hard time finding work over the past few years, what do you think is the reason?

☐ lacked vocational training
☐ couldn't pass the physical exam
☐ couldn't pass the other employment tests
☐ didn't have a high school diploma
☐ had no one to care for my children
☐ lacked work experience
☐ was too young
☐ was discriminated against because of race
☐ other ______________________________
(write in)

____

When you left school, did you expect to have trouble finding work:

in your home community? ☐ yes ☐ no
in a northern city? ☐ yes ☐ no
outside the South? ☐ yes ☐ no

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37. Before you looked for your first job, did you have an idea of the type of work you wanted to do?

☐ yes (answer A, B & C below)

☐ no (go on to question 38)

A. Did you find the type of work you wanted?

☐ yes ☐ no

B. Did you have a harder time getting your first job than you expected?

☐ yes ☐ no

C. Was your first job a better job or a worse job than you expected to get?

☐ better job ☐ worse job ☐ neither better nor worse

38. How did you find out about your first full-time job?

☐ I have never held a full-time job

☐ friends or relatives

☐ through school

☐ newspaper ads

☐ private employment agency

☐ public employment agency

☐ other ______________________________
(write in)

39. Which method of finding jobs have you used most often?

☐ friends or relatives

☐ school

☐ newspaper ads

☐ private employment agency

☐ public employment agency

☐ other ______________________________
(write in)

40. Do you think that black and white people have equal chances of getting good jobs?

☐ yes ☐ no

(IF NO) Who has the better chance of getting good jobs?

☐ black people

☐ white people

41. Have you had to take lower-paying or less-attractive jobs even though you are qualified for better jobs?

☐ yes ☐ no

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[illegible] in the table below.
[illegible]
[illegible]
[illegible]

[illegible]	[illegible]	Check whether you usually do this alone or with friends
Attending [illegible]	___	☐ alone ☐ with friends
Attending a [illegible]	___	☐ alone ☐ with friends
[illegible]	___	☐ alone ☐ with friends
[illegible]	___	☐ alone ☐ with friends
[illegible]	___	☐ alone ☐ with friends
[illegible]	___	☐ alone ☐ with friends
[illegible]	___	☐ alone ☐ with friends
Bowling, [illegible] tennis or other [illegible]	___	☐ alone ☐ with friends
Baseball, football, basketball, [illegible]	___	
Watching TV	___	☐ alone ☐ with friends
"Just [illegible]" with friends	___	
Church group or other social clubs	___	☐ alone ☐ with friends
Riding around in cars	___	☐ alone ☐ with friends
Working on hobbies (repairing cars, sewing, [illegible], cooking, etc.)	___	☐ alone ☐ with friends
Collecting hobbies (stamps, coins, butterflies, etc.)	___	☐ alone ☐ with friends
Other (list): ___	___	☐ alone ☐ with friends
___	___	☐ alone ☐ with friends
___	___	☐ alone ☐ with friends

48. Where have you lived since June, 1968? (please give a complete listing. [College students: It is not necessary for you to note all movement between your home and your college, unless you changed colleges or your home address changed.]

a. From June, 1968 to ___
(mo/yr) (mo/yr)

___ ___
(city) (state)

b. From ___ to ___
(mo/yr) (mo/yr)

___ ___
(city) (state)

c. From ___ to ___
(mo/yr) (mo/yr)

___ ___
(city) (state)

d. From ___ to ___
(mo/yr) (mo/yr)

___ ___
(city) (state)

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NOTE: [illegible] COUNTY TO A METROPOLITAN AREA, PLEASE [illegible]

44. Why did you leave your home community? [illegible] the box that indicates how important EACH of the following reasons was in causing you to move [illegible]

	Not Important	Fairly Important	Very Important
Lack of jobs in the rural areas	☐	☐	☐
To further my education	☐	☐	☐
Wanted to move near friends or relatives	☐	☐	☐
Lack of entertainment or things to do	☐	☐	☐
Seeking adventure [illegible]	☐	☐	☐
Family reasons	☐	☐	☐
Other:	☐	☐	☐
	☐	☐	☐

45. If you checked lack of jobs in the rural areas as being "fairly" or "very important" reasons [illegible], check the boxes to indicate how important the following reasons were in causing you to leave:

	Not Important	Fairly Important	Very Important
Few job openings in the rural areas	☐	☐	☐
Discriminatory hiring in the rural areas	☐	☐	☐
Opportunity to earn higher wages outside the rural areas	☐	☐	☐
Opportunity to enter a broader range of jobs outside the rural areas	☐	☐	☐
Always knew I would have to leave the rural areas in search of work	☐	☐	☐

46. Did you move to a city where friends and relatives already lived? ☐ yes ☐ no

47. Did you find that you were able to make friends easily in the city? ☐ yes ☐ no

48. If a job like the one you have now were available in your home county would you prefer to return there or stay in the city? ☐ return ☐ stay in city

NOTE: QUESTIONS 49 THROUGH 51 ARE CONCERNED WITH YOUR EDUCATION BEYOND HIGH SCHOOL -- INCLUDING APPRENTICESHIP, TRADE SCHOOL, COLLEGE, OR VOCATIONAL SCHOOL. (IF YOU DID NOT RECEIVE ANY SUCH TRAINING, CHECK HERE ☐ AND SKIP TO QUESTION 52.)

49. Did you attend a trade or vocational school? ☐ yes ☐ no

(IF YES) a. List the job for which you were (or are) being trained:

(job title)

b. Name of school:

Address:
(street)

(city) (state)

c. How long was (or is) the complete training program? (no. of months)

d. Did you (or will you) complete the program? ☐ yes ☐ no

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50. Did you enter a formal apprenticeship program? ☐ yes ☐ no

(IF YES) a) What was the title of the job you were (or are) being trained:

____
(job title)

b) What agency conducts this training program?

Name of agency: ______________________________

Address: ______________________________
(street)

______________________ ______________________
(city) (state)

c. How long was (or is) the complete training program? ______________
(no. of months)

d. Did you (or will you) complete the program? ☐ yes ☐ no

51. Did you attend college? ☐ yes

☐ no (go on to question 52)

(IF YES) Answer Parts A through G below

A. How many years of college have you completed? ______
(years)

B. In what school did you take (or are you taking) most of your college courses?

____
(name of school)

______________________ ______________________
(city) (state)

C. This school is a:

☐ University or 4-year college

☐ Normal school or teacher's college

☐ Junior college

D. What is (or was) your major field of study in college? ______________
(write in)

E. What is your overall grade average in college? ☐ A ☐ B ☐ C ☐ D

F. When did you decide that you were going to college?

☐ I always assumed I'd go

☐ elementary school

☐ 7th, 8th or 9th grade

☐ 10th or 11th grade

☐ senior in high school

☐ after graduation

G. Have you been an officer in any clubs or organizations in your college -- for example, student government -- or been a class officer or member of a house council?

☐ yes ☐ no ☐ haven't joined any clubs

52. If you did not go to college, what was the reason?

☐ I did not have enough money

☐ I did not graduate from high school

☐ I did not pass the college entrance exams

☐ My high school grades were too low

☐ I did not want to go to college

☐ I did not get any (or very much) information about college from my high school

☐ Other ______________________________
(write in)

Rural Youth Study - Form 12 **BEST COPY AVAILABLE** Individual Student's School Background

Name: ______________________________

High school attended: __________________ (School), ________________ (Town), ________________ (County), ____________ (State)

Address while attending high school:

________________________ (Town), ____________________ (County)

Present mailing address:

________________________ (Street address), ____________________ (City), ____________ (State)

1. Race of student ☐ white ☐ black

. In what course of study was this pupil enrolled during his final year in high school.

☐ College-preparatory
☐ Commercial (Business)
☑ Vocational shop
☐ Vocational agriculture
☐ General
☐ Industrial Arts

3. Type of diploma this pupil received?

☐ Regular
☐ Attendance certificate
☐ Dropped out

. If this student dropped out, how many full years of high school (grades 10-12) had he completed?

0 1 2

5. Curricula: 1961-1963

Circle the number that corresponds to the number of complete years of instruction taken by this pupil, grades 10-12.

A.	English (Literature, Grammar, Speech, etc.)	0	1	2	3
B.	Math (Algebra, Geom., Trig., Advanced)	0	1	2	3
C.	Math (Shop and Business)	0	1	2	3
D.	Social Studies (History, Geography, Civics, etc.)	0	1	2	3
E.	Home Economics	0	1	2	3
F.	Science (General Biology, Chemistry, Physics, etc.)	0	1	2	3
G.	Typing	0	1	2	3
H.	Business Machines	0	1	2	3
I.	Commercial (Business Methods, Bus. Law, Shorthand, etc.)	0	1	2	3
J.	Foreign Language #1	0	1	2	3
K.	Foreign Language #2	0	1	2	3
L.	Latin and/or Greek	0	1	2	3
M.	Music (Choir, Band, Orchestra, etc.)	0	1	2	3
N.	Art	0	1	2	3
O.	Vocational Agriculture	0	1	2	3
P.	Vocational Shop (specific job training)	0	1	2	3
Q.	Industrial Arts (general vocational familiarization)	0	1	2	3

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6. If this student was enrolled in "Vocational Education (specific job training)", in what field was most of his course work taken?

☐ Auto Mechanics
☐ Drafting
☐ Electricity-Electronics
☐ Graphic Arts

☐ Machine Shop
☐ Welding
☐ Metal Arts
☐ Wood Working

7. While this student attended this high school, did he(she) receive high school credits for vocational courses offered at institutions other than this high school?

☐ yes ☐ no

8. Check the following extra-curricular activities this pupil participated in, 1967-68.

☐ student government
☐ school newspaper
☐ school yearbook
☐ interscholastic athletics
☐ band
☐ orchestra
☐ chorus
☐ honor society
☐ service clubs

☐ subject matter clubs
☐ hobby clubs
☐ public speaking
☐ drama, plays
☐ debate
☐ occupational oriented clubs (FFA, FHA, etc.
☐ other (list) ____________________

____

____

9. What is the latest IQ score obtained by this pupil?

☐ below 69
☐ 70-79
☐ 80-89
☐ 90-109

☐ 110-119
☐ 120-129
☐ 130 and above
☐ we do not give IQ tests.

10. Where did this student rank in his graduating class? ___ out of ___ students.

11. How many times did this pupil consult with a guidance counselor between 1964-68?

☐ not at all
☐ one to 5 times

☐ more than 5 times

12. If this student consulted with Guidance/Counseling, in what areas was he counseled?

☐ high school program studies
☐ testing results (aptitude & interest)
☐ further education (college or vocational)

☐ vocational planning
☐ job placement
☐ personal problems

13. While this student attended this high school, did he(she) receive financial aids (grants or loans) from this high school?

☐ yes ☐ no

14. How many days was this student absent in the years

1965-66__________, 1966-67__________, 1967-68__________?

____________________ (Person Collecting Information)

Rural Youth Study - Form J3

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________________ (TOWN) ________________ (COUNTY) ____________ (STATE)

1. Between 1963-1968 how many of the following services and facilities were available in your community? (Give average number available during this period. If not available write none.)

A. Essential services

1. Hospitals ________
2. Doctors ________
3. Dentists ________
4. Public Health nurses ________
5. Drug stores ________
6. Churches ________
7. Super Markets (Chain- or multi-dept.) ________
8. Full-line clothing stores ________
9. Optometrists, Opticians, or Ophthalmologists ________

Total ________

B. Recreational and cultural facilities

1. Parks (with playground facilities) ________
2. Parks (without playground facilities) ________
3. Libraries ________
4. (Operating) movie theaters ________
5. Swimming Pools and/or lakes and/or swimmable rivers ________
6. Golf courses ________
7. Bowling alleys ________
8. Pool halls (billiard parlors) ________

Total ________

2. If people are employed in your community in the following unskilled or semi-skilled occupations, write in the current beginning hourly wage rate for full-time employees in each occupation.

A. Gas station attendant $________/hr
B. Waitress $________/hr
C. Farm laborer $________/hr
D. Grocery store clerk $________/hr
E. Sales clerk $________/hr
F. General laborer (other than farm) $________/hr

3. Between 1963-1968 were there any private or government employment agencies in your community?

☐ yes ☐ no

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6. Between 1961-1968 what types of public transportation (into and out of your community) were available? Indicate the average number of weekly scheduled stops made by each.

   a. Bus _____ stops per week

   b. Train (passenger only) _____ stops per week

   c. Plane _____ stops per week

[illegible] Youth Study - Form [illegible]

Name of person completing this form ____________

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School: ____________ County ____________ State ____________

1. Was your high school accredited by the state accrediting agency in 1967-1968?

☐ yes
☐ yes (probational)
☐ yes (provisional)
☐ no

2. Was your high school consolidated (that is, merged with other schools to provide a larger student population), before 1967-1968?

☐ yes ☐ no

3. What was the status of this high school in 1967-68?

A. Segregated, with full attendance and normal operations ____
B. Nominal integration, and less than full attendance, and/or possible disruptions ____
C. Integrated, with full attendance and normal operations ____

Was bus service provided for outlying high school students, 1967-1968?

☐ yes ☐ no

5. Number of pupils in high school (grades 10-12) during 1967-1968: ____

Number of high school (grades 10-12) teachers in 1967-1968: ____

7. Number of pupils in 1968 graduating class: ____

Number of 1968 graduates who received regular diplomas: ____

9. Number of 1968 graduates who received attendance certificates: ____

10. Number of students who enrolled in high school in 1964 but did not graduate in 1968 (Exclude transfers, but include those who left because of illness, armed forces, work opportunity, marriage, maternity leave, etc.): ____

11. Estimated number of 1968 graduates who went on to a college or university (2- or 4-yr): ____

12. Estimated number of 1968 graduates who went on to further training (Vocational, trade, technical, business, etc.) ____

13. What, approximately, was the 1967-1968 expenditure per pupil? ____________

14. Curricula: 1964-1968

Circle the number that corresponds to the number of complete years of instruction offered by this high school, grades 10-12.

A.	English (Literature, Grammar, Speech, etc.)	0	1	2	3
B.	Math (Algebra, Geom, Trig, Advanced)	0	1	2	3
C.	Math (Shop, Business or General)	0	1	2	3
D.	Social Studies (History, Geography, Civics, etc.)	0	1	2	3
E.	New Afro-American Culture/History	0	1	2	3
F.	Science (General, Biology, Chemistry, Physics, etc.)	0	1	2	3
G.	Foreign Language #1 (Include Latin and Greek)	0	1	2	3
H.	Foreign Language #2 (Include Latin and Greek)	0	1	2	3
I.	Music (Choir, Band, Orchestra, etc.)	0	1	2	3
J.	Art	0	1	2	3
K.	Home Economics	0	1	2	3
L.	Typing	0	1	2	3
M.	Business Machines	0	1	2	3
N.	Commercial (Business Methods, Bus. Law, Shorthand, etc.)	0	1	2	3
O.	Vocational Agriculture	0	1	2	3
P.	Vocational Education (Specific: job training)	0	1	2	3
Q.	Industrial Arts (General: familiarization & introduction)	0	1	2	3

15. How many square feet of shop space (excluding space for vocational agriculture did this high school have in 1967-1968: ____________

16. Did your high school have a classroom for typing, only, in 1967-1968?

☐ yes
☐ no

17. Which of the following instructional business machines did your high school have, 1967-1968:

☐ typewriter
☐ calculator
☐ key punch
☐ computer
☐ adding machine
☐ comptometer
☐ dictaphone
☐ other(s) -- list

____
____
____

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18. Were on-the-job training or work-study courses offered during 1967-1968?

☐ yes
☐ no

19. Were formal occupational familiarization courses offered during 1967-1968?

☐ yes
☐ no

20. Did your school offer a "Career Night" or a "Vocation Day" in 1967-1968?

☐ yes
☐ no

21. Did your school offer or sponsor any occupational familiarization field trips during 1967-1968?

☐ yes
☐ no

22. Did your school offer a job placement service for its students during 1967-1968?

☐ yes
☐ no

23. Check the extracurricular activities that were offered by your high school, 1967-1968:

☐ student government
☐ interscholastic athletics
☐ orchestra
☐ honor society
☐ hobby clubs
☐ drama, plays
☐ occupation oriented clubs (FHA, FFA, etc.)
☐ socials-dances
☐ school yearbook
☐ school newspaper
☐ band
☐ chorus
☐ subject matter clubs
☐ public speaking
☐ debate
☐ service clubs (Hi-Y, etc.)
☐ other (list)____________________________

____
____

24. In how many extracurricular activities was school-sponsored travel (on a regular basis) to cities of 10,000 or more people involved?

☐ 1-2
☐ 3-4
☐ 5-7
☐ 8-10
☐ over 10
☐ none

25. Is bus service provided by the school for those participating in extracurricular activit
that meet during after-school hours?

☐ yes
☐ no

26. Were education specialists listed below available on a regular, scheduled basis during 1967-1968?

a.	speech correction teacher	☐ yes	☐ no
b.	remedial reading teacher	☐ yes	☐ no
c.	trained school nurse	☐ yes	☐ no
d.	librarian	☐ yes	☐ no
e.	guidance counselor	☐ yes	☐ no
f.	social worker	☐ yes	☐ no
g.	special education teacher	☐ yes	☐ no
h.	school psychologist	☐ yes	☐ no

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27. In 1964-1968, did this high school have a program to provide grants or loans to students who needed assistance while attending high school?

☐ yes ☐ no

28. Did your high school use standardized achievement tests in one or more grades during 1967-1968?

☐ yes ☐ no

29. Did your high school use interest inventories in one or more grades between 1964-1968?

☐ yes ☐ no

30. Did your high school use intelligence tests in one or more grades between 1964-1968?

☐ yes ☐ no

31. List the teachers and counselors (and their present addresses, if known) who taught at ______________________ high school between 1964-1968. (Add more sheets if necessary.)

	Name	Address
1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		
6.		
7.		
8.		
9.		
10.		
11.		
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42.

43.

44.

45.

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TEACHER/COUNSELOR QUESTIONNAIRE

Staff member ______________________________

High School ______________________________
(Name of School)

____
(Town) (County) (State)

1. Were you on the staff of this high school during the 1967-1968 school year?

☐ yes, full time

☐ yes, part time

☐ no

☐ other (write in) ______________________________

____

2. Before 1967, had you ever lived in a city of 20,000 or more people for two (2) or more years?

☐ yes ☐ no

(IF YES) In what city or cities?

a. __________ __________ __________
(City) (State) (No. of Yrs.)

b. __________ __________ __________
(City) (State) (No. of Yrs.)

c. __________ __________ __________
(City) (State) (No. of Yrs.)

3. Before 1967, had you ever been a full-time teacher or counselor in a school in a city of 20,000 or more people?

☐ yes ☐ no

(IF YES) In what city or cities?

a. __________ __________ __________
(City) (State) (No. of Yrs.)

b. __________ __________ __________
(City) (State) (No. of Yrs.)

c. __________ __________ __________
(City) (State) (No. of Yrs.)

4. Where have you lived during most of your life?

☐ In a city of 100,000 or more population

☐ In a suburb of a city of 100,000 or more population

☐ In a city of 10,000 to 100,000 population not a suburb of a large city

☐ In a city of 5,000 to 10,000 population

☐ In a town of less than 5,000 population

☐ On a farm

☐ On a government installation or reservation

☐ Other ______________________________
(Write in)

5. How many years of college training had you completed before the 1967 - 1968 school year?

____
(Number of years)

6. What was the highest degree you had received at that time?

____
(Degree)

7. Did your state require teacher certification in 1967-1968?

☐ Yes ☐ no

(IF YES) What was your status in regard to this requirement in 1967-1968?

☐ I was probationally certified

☐ I was fully certified

☐ I was not certified during that year

8. a. What was your major area of study leading to this highest degree?

____
(Major Area)

b. Your minor (if any) ______________________________
(Minor Area)

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9. Which of the categories below best describes the institution where you took most of your undergraduate courses before 1967?

☐ University or college

☐ Normal school or teacher's college

☐ Junior college

☐ Other ______________________
(Write in)

10. During the 1967-68 school year, approximately what percentage of your time was assigned to each of the following school activities:

_______ % Teaching (including home-room activities)

_______ % Counseling (do not count home-room activities)

_______ % Coaching of Athletics

_______ % Administration

_______ % Other (Explain) ______________________

____

11. If teaching was one of your assigned duties, please answer the following:

a. What subject(s) did you teach (Write in) _______

____

____

b. As of July, 1967, how many years of full time teaching experience did you have?

____
(no. of Years)

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12. If counseling was one of your assigned duties, please answer the following:

a. As of July, 1967, how many years of full time counseling experience did you have?

____
(No. of Years)

b. During the 1967-1968 school year, how many students were formally assigned to you in your capacity as guidance counselor?

____
(No. of Students)

c. On the average, how many different students did you counsel on an individual basis during a week's time?

____
(No. of Students)

d. Approximately what percentage of your counseling was done in each of the following areas:

_______ % Educational (high school course selection, programming, etc.)

_______ % Educational (College selection, college major, etc.)

_______ % Personal (personal problems, emotional adjustment, etc.)

_______ % Disciplinary (school discipline problems)

_______ % Vocational (Trade school selection, job selection, etc.)

e. In the area of vocational counseling, which of the following methods did you use in the 1967-1968 school year: (Please check each of the methods you used.)

☐ Personal interviews

☐ Ability tests

☐ Formal lectures in an organized course

☐ Guest (expert) lectures

☐ Training in applying for a job

☐ Interest inventories

☐ Field trips to industry

☐ "Career day" or "Career Night"

☐ Other (Describe) ______________________

APPENDIX C

THE METHODS USED IN THIS STUDY

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APPENDIX C

THE METHODS USED IN THIS STUDY

Sampling Tecnnique

The sampling technique used in this study is designed to ensure that a small sample will be representative of a larger population, with respect to one or more relevant variables. This "Controlled Selection" technique has been outlined in detail by Kish.* Basically, the procedure consists of dividing the total population into equal strata with respect to rank order on some relevant variable, and then further dividing the population within each stratum in relation to one or more additional relevant variables. Each stratum is thus divided into cells; all the observations within a cell are similar with respect to the relevant variables. The actual selection is done by randomly picking patterns which dictate the cell that will be entered in each stratum. Then a table of random numbers is used to pick a member from within each cell. (Although highly simplified, the above description covers the major aspects of the procedure.)

The variables used to ensure the selection of a representative cross section of rural counties were: population per square mile, proportion of nonwhite population, and net population change. All of the non-Appalachian rural counties in the southeastern states of North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama and Mississippi were divided into two equal strata on the basis of population per square mile. Within these strata, the counties were further classified by population mix and net population change. This resulted in the following 16-cell frequency table.

---

*Kish, Leslie, Survey Sampling, John Wiley and Sons, New York, 1965. (pp. 491-495)

		Net Population Change			
		+13.3	0 to +13.2	0 to -9.9	-10.0+
Low population per sq. mile	Low nonwhite	1	8	5	30
	High nonwhite	0	1	15	54
High population per sq. mile	Low nonwhite	22	17	14	23
	High nonwhite	4	3	14	25

Following this procedure outlined above, 16 rural counties were selected to be studied. These 16 counties are described in Table C-1.

Table C-1

The 16 Rural Counties Included in the Study

County	State	Pop/sq.mi.	Population Change	% Nonwhite
Bullock	Alabama	18.8	-12.2	67
Greene	Alabama	16.1	-21.7	75
Clay	Georgia	18.2	-20.1	62
Tattnall	Georgia	33.8	+ 4.5	31
Treutlein	Georgia	29.1	- 3.9	33
Franklin	Mississippi	14.1	-13.7	39
Leake	Mississippi	29.2	- 8.4	39
Perry	Mississippi	13.9	+ 3.7	26
Sunflower	Mississippi	53.4	-19.0	63
Anson	North Carolina	44.1	- 5.9	45
Bladen	North Carolina	30.0	- 8.3	40
Nash	North Carolina	108.7	- 3.1	36
Bamberg	South Carolina	39.1	- 2.0	55
Chester	South Carolina	50.1	- 3.5	39
Florence	South Carolina	108.9	+ 6.2	37
McCormick	South Carolina	21.4	- 7.8	60

Sample of Students

In each of the 16 rural counties, the names of all students enrolled in the 8th grade during the 1963-64 school year were obtained from school records. Long-term residents of these counties (selected by the local school superintendents) were employed to determine, through interviews and local records, the present home addresses of these students.

The same local residents also obtained information about the counties in which these students grew up and of the town in which the students attended high school. They also obtained extensive information about every high school in the county or city, including present addresses of all persons who were staff members during the 1967-68 school year. The sample was then examined to restrict it to those who remained in the county until age 16 and would have been eligible (disregarding income) to enter an NYC project, had such a project been operating in their community. The sample was further restricted through elimination of those currently institutionalized, in the armed forces, or deceased.

Of the eligible students, 2620 were selected randomly; addresses were found for 1764 of them, and each was mailed a questionnaire.* The information solicited was concerned with the person's early history (particularly those variables believed, on the basis of preliminary interviews, to be important in successful transfer to the adult social and occupational environment), and with his experiences in school and in the rural community.

Those who were still enrolled in school at the time of the study (summer of 1972) were asked about the kind of school they were attending, the general type of course they were taking, their grade point average, and the scope of their extracurricular activities. Those in the labor force were asked about their employment history, job-seeking experiences and social experiences.

---

*See Appendix B for copies of all questionnaires used in this study.

The data obtained in the home community and those obtained from the student questionnaire were combined for each subject. These data were analyzed to determine the degree to which each of the factors previously hypothesized to affect the success of rural youth is related to the actual experiences of these young adults.

By using different analytical approaches to these same data it has been possible to determine the patterns of migration, higher education, occupational choice, and residential choice that are prevalent among young people from different kinds of rural settings. It has been possible to determine whether the rural factors being studied have a differential effect on the later experiences of those who remained in a rural setting, those who moved to a medium-sized city, and those who migrated to a major metropolitan setting.

In our previous study of rural youth in the North Central states, we had little difficulty in locating our sample of young people, even though over 80 percent had left their home counties. Most of the young outmigrants maintained close personal ties back in their home communities. Addresses were found for all but 3.2 percent of the former students.

In contrast, in the Southeast we found that large numbers of rural youths, both blacks and whites, leave their home towns and cut all personal ties there. Whole families move and leave no information about their destination. Of the 2620 young people in our original sample, 856 (32.7 percent) could not be traced. Their school classmates were asked if they had current addresses for these missing youths and on-site contacts were made with the local Post Office, local schools, and those family members who remained in the community.

In part, this difficulty in tracing former students was due to extremely bad record keeping by school authorities. In one county, 50 years of school records were filed in alphabetical order rather than by school year. In another county, the record cards from 20 schools were literally dumped in an unlighted basement in a large, unsorted pile. Our field staff reconstructed lists of eighth grade students for the school year 1963-64, but the original records proved to be very inaccurate. In lieu of recorded addresses, it was found that large numbers of records throughout the region were marked "dropped out" or "records not available."

Of those youths whose school records stated that they had "dropped out", we found that a large proportion are not really dropouts; they moved to other localities and continued their education. Among those youths who completed our questionnaire, 123 were carried as "dropouts" on local school records. We found that 32 of these 123 youths completed high school in other localities; 12 actually attended college.

Assuming this same proportion of error with respect to the "dropouts" who did not respond to our questionnaire, our respondents include a representative proportion of youths who entered high school and then dropped out. We did not receive a representative proportion of responses from those who did not enter high school, however.

We were able to obtain personal data from only a very few of those youths about whom the local school records state either "dropped out between 8th grade and high school" or "high school records not available". For many, as noted above, we could not obtain any addresses. Of those in this group for whom we obtained addresses (of unknown validity), only 10 percent filled out a questionnaire, despite an offer of $5.00 for completing the questionnaire in each of three consecutive mailings. This was not a sufficient sample response rate for reliable generalizations to be made about this population. We therefore have limited this report to the results we obtained concerning those youths who entered high school.

The response rate among this latter group was 51 percent among the white youths and 42 percent among the black youths. The results discussed in this report must be interpreted as results of a nonrandom, somehow biased sample. We don't know exactly how this sample is biased; we have a general indication that our results are about a more able and better educated subsection of the population than the entire population which a rural youth program in the Southeast must serve. We have taken this into account in describing a model program for the Southeast.

APPENDIX D

OCCUPATIONS FAMILIAR TO RURAL YOUTH

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APPENDIX D

OCCUPATIONS FAMILIAR TO RURAL YOUTH

Professional, Technical and Managerial Occupations

Engineering (surveyor, draftsman)

Medicine and health (doctor, nurse, dentist, veterinarian, pharmacist)

Education (librarian)

Law and jurisprudence (lawyer, judge, police chief)

Religion (clergyman)

Entertainment and recreation (actors, performers, coaches, radio and television announcers)

Administrative specialists (accountants)

Managers (manager of retail store, bank, small factory, or large farm; national, state and local government officials)

Clerical and Sales Occupations

Secretarial and clerical (secretary, file clerk, typist, general office)

Accounting (bookkeeper for business or bank, bank teller and cashier)

Information and message distribution (newspaper reporter, telephone operator, telegraph operator, postman)

Sales (territory salesman, retail sales clerk, real estate salesman, insurance salesman, auctioneer)

Service Occupations

Domestic service (day worker, housekeeper, laundress, domestic maid, yardman, domestic cook, nursemaid)

Food and beverage preparation and service (cook, waitress, bartender, butcher, baker, kitchen worker)

Lodging (hotel or motel operator, boarding housekeeper)

Barbering, cosmetology (barber, beautician, embalmer)

Apparel and furnishings service (laundering, dry cleaning, shoe repairman)

Protective service (fireman, policeman, guard, sheriff, military serviceman)

Building service (janitor)

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Farming, Fishery, and Forestry Occupations

Farming (farmer, farm laborer)

Fishery and forestry (conservation agent)

Hunting and trapping (game warden, hunter, trapper, guide)

Agricultural service (county extension agent, blight and pest control occupations)

Machine Trades Occupations

Metal working (machinist, welder, blacksmith)

Mechanic and machinery repairman (auto mechanic, farm machinery repairman)

Printing (newspaper typesetter, pressman)

Wood machining (cabinetmaker, sawmill operator)

Benchwork Occupations

Repair of watches and clocks (watch repairman)

Assembly and repair of sheet metal products

Repair of electrical equipment (telephone repairman, radio and television repairman, electrical appliance repairman)

Painting (brush painter, spray painter)

Textile fabrication (seamstress)

Structural Work Occupations

Metal fabrication (automobile body man)

Electrical installing and repair (electrician, lineman)

Building trades (brick and stone mason, plumber, roofer, carpenter, painter, plasterer, paperhanger, cement finisher, excavating, grading, paving)

Miscellaneous Occupations

Motor freight (truck driver, loader)

Transportation (bus driver, ticket agent)

Amusement, recreation, motion picture (ticket sales, usher, projectionist)